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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 16, 1910.

The Week.

The compromise which has now been reached by the Railroad-Bill Conference Committee regarding the question of Federal control of issues of stocks and bonds is of a kind very natural under the circumstances. In general, the line-up was between the "regular" Republicans on the conservative side and the Democrats and "insurgent" Republicans on the radical side. But the State-rights aspect of the Federal control of stock and bond issues caused Democratic opposition to that feature of the radical programme, and, though President Taft was strongly committed to it, he could not bring the regulars to support it, along with the insurgents. They had the excuse that, in order to procure the assent of the Democrats to the bill, it had been necessary to promise them that this feature would be left out. The compromise, it is stated, provides for a commission to inquire into stock-watering; this will certainly not interfere with State rights, but will give the States, and the country, information on which future action may be based. It was a happy thought to shelve the difficulty in this way, and with its disappearance the long-continued troubles of the bill on its way to adoption are virtually at an end.

The passage in the House of the bill to create a system of postal savings must be accounted a decided victory for President Taft. But for his urging, the measure certainly would not have been enacted in this session of Congress, although both parties had declared themselves in favor of it. It has to be admitted, also, that a great deal of general support for the plan has been called out, especially in the West. This was shown by the fact that twenty-three Democratic Representatives felt compelled to vote for this Republican bill. The final roll-call showed 195 in favor to 101 against. The bill differs in some respects from the form in which it passed the Senate, so that it now goes to conference. There can be no doubt, however, that it will be made law, and that

we are to enter upon this interesting experiment. It has been asserted that in the course of it \$500,000,000 in small savings will be drawn out and added to our banking resources. If that proves to be even half true, the financial consequences of the step will be highly important.

On the main question between the President and Representative Harrison, we think that Mr. Taft had a substantial grievance. The Congressman had publicly accused the President of dishonest motives—his statement being that "the President and the Attorney-General had agreed to furnish to Congress misleading information." Mr. Taft might well take offence at that, and conclude that he would have no further personal relations with Mr. Harrison. But granting this, the manner in which the President chose to snub the Congressman was most unfortunate. The latter had a regular appointment to go to the White House with a delegation, and no intimation had been conveyed to him that his presence would be unwelcome. It is true that he was there privately told that the President would not see him, but under the circumstances this was tantamount to a public humiliation. As for Mr. Harrison, he is aware that the affront is really a godsend. He now has a new political asset. When Martin Van Buren's nomination as Minister to England was rejected by the Senate, even after Van Buren had begun his service in London under an interim appointment, Lord Auckland said to him: "It is an advantage to a public man to be the subject of an outrage." Benton declared to the exulting Whig Senators at the time: "You have killed a Minister, but you have made a Vice-President"; which turned out to be the case. We hope it will not be inferred from this that Mr. Harrison is our candidate for the Vice-Presidency.

John Dalzell, seeking in the courts a temporary stay of the hand that struck him, is apparently anxious to delay the inevitable as long as possible. It was a hard blow to his dignity to come so near to defeat in his own party primary, but when his late opponent procured a recount and Dalzell's meagre

majority began to sink rapidly, it was necessary to act at once. The injunction which he obtained last Friday is only temporary and the Pittsburgh Cannon lieutenant cannot hope to put off the agony much longer. At most he can force by court order the opening of the ballot boxes about which Dr. Black, his opponent, has made no protest. As it was, the county commissioners opened one of the boxes in an uncontested district before the injunction was served on them, and it added two votes to Black's total. If this average were kept up in other districts it would more than wipe out the 198 votes by which Dalzell now leads. If that should be the outcome, it would give point to the comment of "Boss" Oliver's paper, the *Gazette-Times*, which, in congratulating Pittsburgh upon its escape from "a national calamity," declared that Dalzell's defeat "would have been hailed from Maine to California as repudiation of the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill, as a rebuke to the Administration, and as a sign of weakening in the Republican phalanx."

The decision of the California Labor Bureau that Japanese immigration is necessary to the welfare of that State, comes as a striking commentary on the anti-Japanese agitation of two years ago. The protest at that time seemed to be unanimous. The Legislature was prepared to pass a whole series of restrictive laws, ranging from the total exclusion of Japanese laborers to the segregation in schools of all Japanese children. But at the eleventh hour pacific influences from Washington prevailed, and the proposed legislation was withdrawn or defeated. As a matter of fact, the apparent solidarity of California against Japanese immigration was an illusion, as apparent solidarities usually are. The anti-Japanese element was organized and vociferous, while the pro-Japanese element was unorganized and quietly busy about its work. The Legislature was induced to compromise the issue by ordering an official inquiry wherein mere lung power would lose its customary advantages. A canvass of the whole State was undertaken by means of circulars. Employers of Asiatic labor were invited to say which kind of As-

iatric they preferred, and why, and to enumerate the benefits and the drawbacks of the different races. A similar inquiry had been made previously, though upon a narrower scale, and the answer then was the same as it is now: the California rancher must employ Asiatic labor because no white labor is available; and while in a great many instances he prefers Chinamen, he is well content with the Japanese. A California "solid against the Japanese" is therefore translated into a California that depends upon the Japanese for crops and general prosperity.

The fact remains, however, that opposition to Japanese immigration will continue as determined as ever, with all its noise and intimidation, and with a better organization. And the Legislature will be fully as amenable as before to the blandishments and the threats of a labor unionism that is more aggressive than elsewhere in the country. San Francisco is opposed to Japanese immigration for the simple reason that the Japanese workman in that city is in direct competition with the white man, whereas elsewhere he is his very obedient and humble servant, doing necessary work that no one else will do.

Last Friday's conviction of two high officers of the Sugar Trust, after a long trial, is not to be taken, as the lawyers for the defence would have the public believe, merely as the result of a blind desire to reach men "higher up." It is, rather, an application of common sense to the whole disgusting scheme of thieving which the Sugar Trust followed. No man in his right mind ever believed that this was the invention or the work of subordinate employees. They were but executing the orders of the unscrupulous men who devised a method of getting rich by daily pilfering from the Government. And the sense of justice would have been revolted had the criminal responsibility been brought home to none of the superior officers. Hence it is a great thing for public morals that a jury, after dispassionately and deliberately considering all the evidence, has found two of the higher officials guilty. If the former head of the Sugar Trust were living, he would undoubtedly have to go to prison for his crimes. But the law which, it is now shown, can reach the men higher up,

has no power to go deeper down into the grave.

Princeton's troubles over her Graduate College came to a happy ending last week. Mr. Procter's offer of \$500,000 was renewed and accepted, and this sum, added to the Wyman legacy, which it is thought will certainly amount to \$3,000,000, will enable the Princeton authorities to lay their foundations broad and deep. An additional \$500,000 is to be raised by the first of the coming year, so that there is already in sight a fund larger than the original endowment of Johns Hopkins. On the question of the site at Princeton, President Wilson yielded his personal preference, as it was easy for him to do in view of the way in which the entire scheme has now expanded. In his statement to the trustees, however, he specified the understanding that "the life of the Graduate College should be organized upon the simplest and most natural lines possible, and that the college building should be of common use and benefit to all members." This shows that the money is not to be employed to promote luxury or snobbery.

What large sums are needed to run the Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes is shown again by their annual reports. Thus Booker Washington's budget for next year is \$259,164.72, as against \$249,522.16 during the financial year just ended, in which no less than \$196,777.87 besides was spent for permanent improvements. At Hampton, the outlay is nearly the same; it will be about \$250,000 for the year just completed, owing in part to the increased cost of living. Hampton has only \$2,180,376 endowment, while the Alabama school possesses \$1,387,111.98, and Mr. Washington is asking for \$3,000,000 more. No one who is not familiar with the circumstances can appreciate the strain put upon Mr. Washington and Dr. Frissell by the need of perpetual begging. Because of it, they have to forsake their duties as principals; and the struggle becomes harder year by year, as the number of such schools increases. It is difficult to understand how the General Education Board, with its Rockefeller millions, can be unmoved by this state of affairs. Mr. Carnegie, too, having given a million to Tuskegee, might well continue the good work. But the General Education Board seems for the

present wrapped up in aiding the smaller colleges. Some day, it is to be hoped, it will enter the field of the small Southern industrial schools for whites and blacks.

Even art comes to him who waits. A Fine Arts Commission to supervise the erection of all new public buildings in Washington, and in general to assist and advise in everything pertaining to the embellishment of the national capital, has been appointed by President Taft. He was authorized to do this by act of Congress. Thus closes an artistic storm. It will be remembered that President Roosevelt undertook on his own motion to constitute such a Fine Arts Commission, but his legal warrant for doing so was doubtful, and Congress legislated his creation out of existence. But Mr. Taft quietly pressed for a reversal of the action, and finally won a real triumph in securing the necessary statute. The whole story shows once more that we do somehow manage to flounder along towards a regard in our public life for what is fit and beautiful.

Mount McKinley has been scaled a second time, and two more expeditions are about to attempt the feat with very fair chances of success. Dr. Cook therefore stands vindicated to this extent, that his claims never embraced the impossible. He may not have climbed Mount McKinley, and he may not have reached the Pole, but by almost a miraculous power of prevision he has seen the coming event a few months in advance of his fellow-citizens; and that is a gift not to be ashamed of. As a harbinger of success he is almost without a rival. It might be a very good thing for civilization if Dr. Cook could be induced to come out of his retirement and announce that he had discovered a cure for tuberculosis, solved the cost-of-living problem, and persuaded the Kaiser to consent to a reduction of armaments. Within a few months these things would actually have been accomplished—by some one else.

Literary free-lancing is usually regarded as an extra-hazardous occupation. The other side of the picture is presented by one of the contributors to a recent volume published by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston under the title, "Vocations for the Trained Woman," and dealing with

every form of occupation open to the educated woman, other than teaching. Newspaper-work as a profession, on the whole, offers few opportunities for women. The pay is not very good, and the work is exhausting, physically and mentally. But with the free-lance the situation is different:

It may be said in general, our informant asserts, that it is a comparatively easy thing for a very ordinary writer, with very ordinary industry, to make \$1,000 a year free-lancing in New York. It is a very easy and a very speedy matter to write a thousand words. It is not a matter of time or difficulty to get the material to fill a thousand words. The crux of the matter comes in knowing what sort of material to get, how to get it, and where to sell it.

No one will take exception to this sanguine statement of the case. We have no doubt that \$50,000 a year is very easy to coin for the lawyer who knows how to find clients who will pay him \$50,000 a year, or the author who can sell two hundred thousand copies of his book.

Within a little over a month since the beginning of his reign in England, the new monarch has had the appointment of two "proconsuls," as the English have proudly learned to call their colonial rulers. Lord Gladstone was named Governor-General of South Africa about two weeks ago, and last week Sir Charles Hardinge, permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was named Viceroy of India, in succession to the Earl of Minto. The Government has thus reverted to the policy it followed in the appointment of Lord Curzon, who held the same post as Sir Charles Hardinge for three years preceding his elevation to the vice-royalty. Unless the precedent of Lord Curzon is followed in another respect and Sir Charles Hardinge is raised to the peerage, he will be with one exception the first commoner in seventy-five years to occupy this exalted position. It must be said, however, that the new Viceroy is the brother of a viscount, the son of a viscount, and the grandson of a viscount—this last one having held the Governor-Generalship of India from 1844 to 1847. The appointment of a man so well trained in diplomacy as Sir Charles Hardinge indicates a desire on the part of the British Government to follow a line of action midway between the traditional policy of naming a noble figurehead and the latter-day policy of blood and iron

that found expression in the desire to see Lord Kitchener made Viceroy.

Reports agree on the probability of a harmony conference between the Liberal and Conservative leaders in England. What is not so clear is whether the arrangement contemplated is to be in the nature of a truce or of a more lasting treaty of peace. Nor is it wholly evident just what reasons impel Mr. Asquith to go into a conference in which it is said the representatives of neither the labor party nor the Irish will participate, and of which the radical element among Mr. Asquith's own followers disapproves. Apparently, the Premier seems to be inviting a recurrence of the situation which caused him great embarrassment a few months ago and from which he extricated himself only by making ample concessions to the radical drive within his own party. At that time it was Mr. Asquith's purpose to proceed with his budget legislation without explicitly pledging himself to a policy of fight on the question of the Lords' veto. This position he was compelled to abandon, and the budget was not passed until Mr. Asquith had made the pledge that, in case the Lords threw out the veto resolutions, he would ask for "guarantees" from the King. A new King now rules in England and the desire to spare his reign an inauspicious beginning is probably strong enough among all parties to postpone the quarrel for some time to come. But Mr. Asquith must have got a firmer grip on his followers than he has hitherto held if he feels strong enough to enter into a permanent compromise with the Opposition.

While to the late King of England has been generally accorded the title of the leading "peacemaker" of the world, there is an equally general impression that in the matter of naval armaments England has been the world's "peacemaker." The London *Economist* is by no means pleased with this "double and most unenviable compliment," and proceeds to dispute it by the production of statistics that point in other directions. Of these the most striking are the figures for the naval expenditures of Germany and of the United States. While Great Britain's naval expenditure has risen from £15,600,000 in 1890 to £40,600,000 in 1910, that of Germany has advanced from £3,600,000 in 1890 to £17,

400,000 in 1908, and that of the United States from \$4,100,000 in 1890 to \$23,600,000 in 1908. Thus British naval expenditure was two and a half times as great in 1910 as it had been twenty years before, while in Germany the outlay had been nearly quintupled in eighteen years beginning with the same date, and in the United States, in the same time, nearly sextupled. The *Economist* urges the revival of the proposal looking to limitation of armaments made by the Czar at the first Hague Conference as an imperative duty of the British Government; and it does seem as though England could press such a proposal with a good countenance.

News of the suppression of the Albanian revolt comes surprisingly close on the heels of the report of Turkish reverses. It is only a few weeks since the Government forces were supposed to have been fought to a standstill, and important towns like Pristina and Prizrend seemed in danger of falling into the hands of the insurgent tribes. That a complete reversal of the situation should have taken place in so short a time, and this, too, without the report of a great battle reaching the outside world, would savor almost of magic, if a more matter-of-fact explanation were not available. The truth would seem to be that the Albanians were not beaten, but placated, and that the wholesale surrender of arms by the tribesmen was voluntary. The outcome has been credited to Shefket Pasha, commander-in-chief of the Turkish armies, and the hero of the capture of Constantinople and the overthrow of Abdul Hamid. But it was Shefket Pasha the diplomat, and not the soldier, who won over the Albanians. His appeal is said to have been made to the patriotic and religious sentiments of the rebellious tribesmen. He pointed out that, taking advantage of the Government's difficult situation in Albania, the enemies of Turkish rule in Crete had renewed the campaign against even the semblance of Ottoman authority in that island, and that the Mohammedan remnant in Crete was being persecuted by the Christian majority. The need of making a united front against European aggression seems to have completely won over the Mohammedan Albanians. In Shefket Pasha Turkey has to-day a man as potent in peace as he is in war.

THE NEW FEELING ABOUT THE TARIFF.

Several defences of the Payne-Aldrich tariff have appeared within the past few days, almost as if concerted. Senator Hale praised highly the new law in a speech in the Senate, declaring that there had been an unconscionable and wholly unjustifiable amount of "barking and howling" about it. Then there was the Wisconsin convention of high-tariff Republicans. They resolved solemnly that the new high tariff was just the kind of thing they liked. And on Saturday, the Washington correspondent of the New York *Tribune* set forth an array of figures to show how the Payne-Aldrich tariff has been "persistently maligned." As a matter of fact, he wrote, it is proving a fairly good revenue-producer. For the nine months ending with April 30, it brought \$252,000,000 into the Treasury from customs duties, or nearly \$40,000,000 more than the Dingley tariff yielded in the like period of 1908. Furthermore, the average rate of duty collected has been 41.73, whereas under the Dingley law it was 42.41. Thus the promised revision downwards is achieved: it amounts to nearly seven-tenths of one per cent. What could be a more complete demonstration of the fact that we ought all to rise up and call the new tariff blessed?

Such defences are, we believe, put forward in good faith. There is every reason to think that the Administration and the old-style Republican leaders regard the argument as entirely sound. From their standpoint, the critics are naturally thought of as querulous or partisan. If the Payne bill can be proved to be no worse than the McKinley bill or the Dingley bill, and, in truth, a shade better than either, why all this continuous complaint? The party and the country acquiesced in the former high-tariff laws, and did not long keep angry over the way in which they were framed, and who will give the reason for so great a difference to-day? It is in genuine perplexity and with real pain that such questions are asked by those bred in the old school of tariff-making.

What the old school fails to perceive is that a new sensitiveness on this subject has taken possession of the nation. It was expressed by Gifford Pinchot in his speech at St. Paul on Saturday, when he alluded to the tariff as an example of the way in which special interests

had been allowed to write the acts of Congress. He specified the indefensible woollen schedule—even President Taft admits that there is no defence for it, except the necessity of yielding to *force majeure*—and the cotton duties raised utterly without excuse, and the trick by which the rate on structural steel was increased, with other offences, including the sugar duties. These are the things which, with the belief that the tariff has helped to drive up the cost of living, have made millions of people angry; and they feel that they do well to be angry and propose to keep on being so and to vent their resentment in their votes, at the first opportunity. To men in such a state of mind, it is not of the slightest use to say that the tariff is doing well as a revenue-getter. That is entirely beside the point. Nor is it of any avail to show by a nice handling of the figures that duties have been, on the average, reduced by a hair. This is not at all the question that is troubling the complainants. What they object to is the evidence that interested citizens and corporations were too strong for the President and for Congress, and were able to write their own schedules into the tariff. This grievance cannot be removed by statistics of revenue or comparisons of the rates of duty carried out to four figures of decimals.

The new feeling about the tariff seems highly unreasonable to the old politicians moving about in a world not realized. "Why," they say in their exasperation, "the tariff has always been made in this way, and why do you begin kicking about it now? You say that you can't stand having people get what they want by 'seeing Aldrich,' but they used to 'see' McKinley and Dingley in just the same way, and you never thought of howling about it then. We can't understand your sudden spasm of virtue." Well, this was also the state of mind of men who couldn't understand the popular outcry against railway rebates. Those, too, were an old story; favored shippers had always got them. What was the use of protesting? But the time came when public sentiment would no longer tolerate that practice. Similarly with the exploitation of the public domain by private interests: that, also, had gone on for years virtually unchecked. It was fairly buttressed with arguments from the antiquity of the abuse. Yet it has had to give way:

its fortress has been carried by assault. And in the same way it is absolutely foolish for defenders of the tariff to sally forth and say that the memory of man runneth not to the contrary of such methods as were followed by Aldrich. Man's memory is making new dates very rapidly in the United States; and the old fashion of creating tariffs in the dark by secret bargains will soon seem as far away as the Flood.

ROOSEVELT IN EUROPE.

The close of Mr. Roosevelt's European tour pricks the mind with the question: Why was it so extraordinarily successful? Begin by making every allowance. Grant that much of the favor shown to Roosevelt was really an evidence of friendliness to the United States, with which all Europe so evidently desires to be on good terms. Concede that the "publicity" department of his travels was carefully attended to, the press being used with all his old skill. In comparing his European reception with Grant's do not leave out of the account the immense changes in international knowledge and international advertising which have taken place since the day of the silent General. Subtract these and all the other items you can think of from the total, and it still remains so large as to challenge explanation while exciting wonder.

No one at all acquainted with the facts can deny the genuineness and spontaneity of the interest which Europe took in Mr. Roosevelt. His fame had preceded him. We may doubt if he added anything to it by means of his journey, except as the vividness of a personality is always heightened by the chance to visualize it. That may explain in part the crowding of Italians and Frenchmen and the others to see the man of whom they had heard so much, and with whose portrait they were so familiar. But with every abatement made, the tribute paid to Mr. Roosevelt by the rulers and people of Europe is something wholly unparalleled. It constitutes by itself a remarkable event which Americans are bound to try to understand—and this not in a spirit of national vainglory, but solely in the endeavor to estimate at their true significance the political ideas which sway the masses of mankind, and with which we shall have to reckon in all our future striving.

Many partial explanations of the European manifestations over Roosevelt lie ready to hand. His dæmonic energy and versatility are qualities which captivate the common imagination everywhere. Then, too, there was an inevitable idealization of the public career of the man, on the part of those who had simply beheld it looming gigantically across the ocean, and who had not had occasion to scrutinize it from near by. It was easy, for example, for an orator in Europe to hail Mr. Roosevelt as the "conqueror of corruption." Such words would stick in the throat of an American familiar with the ex-President's desire that the arch-corruptionist, Ad-dicks, should be elected to the United States Senate from Delaware, or with his private and "practical" arrangements with Harriman to raise money in order to debauch the voters of New York. In Europe, the run of the people know nothing about any of these flaws in the marble; so they are free to take the statue as one ideally perfect. They believe in Mr. Roosevelt's uncommon civic courage; they think of him as one who took his political life in his hands and dashed against rich monopolists; they delight to regard him as a public man of shining honesty and of unrivalled chivalry. It is thus in part an ideal Roosevelt—and we all of us have an ideal Roosevelt tucked away somewhere—whom Europe has been acclaiming; but we cannot bewail or begrudge the glamour of distance which has made this so easy. If there is truth in the saying that the verdict of foreigners on a public man anticipates the judgment of his countrymen in the future, there is matter in this European triumph of Roosevelt which we cannot afford to ignore.

The chief reason for saying so lies in the chief reason for Europe's having so risen to Mr. Roosevelt. This can be got at only by those who have stopped to analyze the emotions of the throngs who pressed upon him. To those thus attentive, it is clear that Mr. Roosevelt was hailed as the champion of the masses against the classes, of the poor against the rich. To thousands and tens of thousands in Europe, this American typifies what they vaguely call the social revolution. In him they think they hear the voice of the struggling common man uttering protests and warnings to the wealthy. That is the final secret of the

great stir of popular admiration for Roosevelt in Europe. He bulks there a large-limbed Goth ready to strike down every form of privilege. He himself seemed to be aware of this, or to respond as an orator does to the sentiments of his audience, in avowing himself, on more than one occasion, a thorough "radical." He has never done that at home. Here he has always chosen to figure as the great mediator between capital and labor, between wealth and poverty, between conservatism and radicalism. But in Europe he instinctively perceived the sign in which he was thought to conquer and declared himself, without mincing words, Theodore Roosevelt the Radical. There is no doubt in our mind that in this he accurately grasped the real cause of the enthusiasm for him on the part of the common people in Europe. They think of him as a fearless and powerful ruler who seizes plutocrats by the throat and compels them to disgorge. He has become a sort of transfigured leader and representative of social and political struggle. That is the thing which made Italian laboring men run after him madly, though they could not understand a word he said, which drew to him even the *blasé* crowd in Paris, which caused the German Social-Democrat to feel that in Roosevelt he had a brother at heart. This is something that goes further and means more than official or academic honors; it is deep answering to deep in the discontent and aspiration of our time. What the European masses see in Roosevelt and hope to get from him, is certain to be more and more in the mind of the American masses, too; so that if he enters public life again we may reasonably look to see him adopt much more radical policies than any that have been associated with his name before. Thus Europe's chorus in praise of Roosevelt is a distinct notification to his fellow-citizens of what they have to expect.

FINLAND AND RUSSIA.

The cry of "Finis Finlandiæ" with which the most notorious reactionary leader in the Russian Duma greeted the passage of the anti-Finland bill may still be belied by the future. But the exultation of the Russian reactionaries does serve to demonstrate how futile it is, for Russia's apologists in the matter of Finland to labor at making out a case for the Czar's Government. Even if

this bill aiming at the suppression of Finnish liberties were, in the eyes of the Czar's Ministers, just and necessary, the yell of triumph with which it was hailed by the former leader of the Black Hundred would be enough to condemn it. It is Russia's misfortune, and at the same time her just penalty, that the forces of misgovernment and reaction within her may seize even upon the good intention and turn it to base uses. It has been Russia's complaint that her motives are misunderstood in the outside world, which refuses to give the Empire credit for good faith in whatever it may attempt. But how, in this present case of Finland, for instance, is it possible to listen to M. Stolypin's assurances of honest intent when above them sounds the "Finis Finlandiæ" of the men who are enemies to all liberty and all progress? The terms conservatism and nationalism are respectable in every country except Russia. There conservatism has spelt dark reaction, and nationalism has meant the persecution of every minor race within the Empire.

Not that the law against Finland's liberties passed by the Duma on Friday is in any way open to the suspicion of being wise, necessary, or justified. Nor has opinion, even in Government circles, been unanimously in its favor. So important a member of the Russian Cabinet as M. Kokovtsoff, Minister of Finance, has sharply criticised the bill and the policy which it embodies. M. Kokovtsoff has argued that Finnish autonomy has its guarantees in the Fundamental Laws of the Empire and has been confirmed in turn by every Emperor since Alexander I. The bill provides that, in matters of joint imperial interest, the Russian Parliament shall be competent to legislate for Finland, and to that end Finland shall send five representatives to the Russian Duma and one representative to the Council of Empire. Such meagre representation, argued M. Kokovtsoff, would not only leave Finnish interests virtually undefended, but would add to the legislative burdens of the Duma, which is now in danger of being swamped by the mass of accumulated legislation. It is absurd, therefore, to complain, as the anti-Finland leaders invariably do, that the cause of the Finns is strong only among foreign professors, legists, sentimentalists, and anti-Russian agitators. Within

the Czar's own official family criticism has spoken out in unmistakable tones.

The principal argument in favor of the new law has been plausibly put. In its terms the measure does not invade Finland's right to manage her own affairs. It simply transfers to the Duma the right of legislating on affairs common to Russia and Finland, which is at present exercised by the Czar through his Ministers. If Ireland had her Parliament, the argument runs, that body would not be allowed to impose its veto on imperial legislation at Westminster, yet that is just what the Finnish Diet has been doing up to the present and wishes to go on doing. Finland's reply is prompt and sufficient. What are these questions of "imperial" interest which alone the Russian Government plans to reserve for its own consideration? Dr. Dillon, in the *Contemporary Review*, gives a list of "imperial" topics taken up for consideration by the Ministerial Council on a certain day of last January. One question dealt with "the summary dismissal of officials and servants of the Finnish railway department, who come to their official duties in a state of intoxication." The Ministerial Council also debated whether it was expedient to create the positions of watchman to the Geographical Department of Helsingfors University, and stoker in the physical laboratory of the same institution. The appointment of a statistical clerk for the financial department of the Finnish Senate at an annual salary of \$1,000 was also discussed. It is such matters of high "imperial" interest that necessitate the dispatch of Finnish representatives to the Russian Duma. After a few years of such active "imperialization," Finland's autonomy and Finland's Diet would be in a fair way of becoming almost as real as the "constitutional" system within Russia itself.

The present campaign against Finland is a resumption of the Bobrikoff policy of 1899, but intensified by the Russian Government's resentment at the part played by the Finns in the revolutionary movement of 1905. Finland alone has kept the liberties which she won in that year of popular upheaval. Elsewhere in Russia the autocratic system has regained its hold. Finland is, therefore, more than ever an eyesore to the champions of the "old Russian" ideals. In her case this hatred is doubled by the fact that Finland is "for-

eign," as well as free, just as the Jews and Poles in Russia are "foreign" without being free. The campaign against Finland, while it has its own special causes, is also part of this general campaign against the minor races within the Empire. In pursuance of that campaign the Jews are once more being hunted out of the cities of the Empire and herded into the Pale. In pursuance of the same campaign against the Poles, M. Stolypin is even ready to install a Zemstvo system in Polish provinces on the basis of universal suffrage—in the provinces, that is, where the Poles are in a minority. High reasons of state are adducible in plenty. But the driving force behind the policy is reaction and race hatred.

THE AIM OF THE COLLEGE.

When the elective system was introduced into our American colleges some forty years ago, the question seemed simple. On the one hand the field of human knowledge had so broadened, and on the other the demands of professional life had become so intensified, that no single required course of study could satisfy the obvious needs of all college students. How to meet the situation thus presented was, indeed, a problem of some difficulty. But the radicals and the conservatives and the men midway between them differed chiefly in their estimate of means, and stood on essentially the same ground as regards the end. The question was not the object of the college, but how that object could best be attained.

How far we are now from that simple condition of things, there have recently been many reminders. The latest of them is to be found in an article in the *Popular Science Monthly* for June, which is a reproduction of the address given some weeks ago by Professor Cattell of Columbia at the annual dinner or the Harvard Teachers' Association at Cambridge. Professor Cattell is a vigorous fighter and a brilliant controversialist. The fact that the pendulum is now swinging strongly away from the free elective system constitutes for him no reason for compliance or compromise; quite the contrary. Nor did the circumstance that he was talking in a Harvard building to Harvard men deter him from making at the president of Harvard every kind of clever thrust

known to the swordsmanship of controversy.

In substance, and almost in form, the speech is a reply to President Lowell's inaugural address. To the views there advanced Professor Cattell objects in almost every instance. He does not believe that the faculty can choose for the student better than the student can; "the collective unwisdom of a college faculty is not often exceeded by an undergraduate student." And he does not believe that the faculty can enforce its choice; its "skill in devising restrictive regulations" being exceeded by "the ingenuity of the student in dodging them." He does not believe in the student being required, or even encouraged, to pursue studies which he does not himself feel will be of special benefit to him in his life work; and he does not believe that interest in such studies can be effectively stimulated by any plan that can be devised. These things, and others like them, are set forth by Professor Cattell, not didactically, but largely in the form of epigram and irony; and his article has rather the pungency of acute special pleading than the convincingness of a thoroughgoing discussion. Placing it alongside Mr. Lowell's inaugural, we do not see—but for one reservation—that it makes any really formidable attack on the position taken by the president of Harvard.

But that reservation is of cardinal importance. The real line of division between Professor Cattell and President Lowell relates not to the mechanism of the college, but to the purpose of the college. President Lowell's address is permeated throughout with the idea that a college education is worth having, and worth giving, for its general effect on the man who gets it; Professor Cattell's words are instinct with contempt and even bitterness for any ideal of a college education in which its results are not measured in terms of specific achievement in after life. It is, we believe, his preoccupation with this view that causes Professor Cattell to present the position of President Lowell in a way that the latter's own statement of it by no means justifies. The reaction against the free elective system has not at all the character of a plea for amateurishness, in any such sense as Professor Cattell seems to suppose; on the contrary, one of its leading motives is the revival of the idea

of mental discipline as a good in itself. That reaction does emphasize the value of culture; but while from the narrower standpoint of the future professional man studies pursued in this spirit may seem those of an amateur, to the student himself they may be the most bracing and the most exacting of intellectual tasks. And it is the idea of subjection to something like a common discipline which, more than anything else, has inspired the opposition to the extreme form of the elective system.

The thesis has been advanced—not by Professor Cattell, though his article points somewhat in that direction—that the funds of a college, being a public trust, cannot justifiably be used for the promotion of the culture of individuals, since such a use serves no public purpose. The premise, however, is decidedly open to question; he would be a bold man who should assert that it is of no benefit to the nation at large to have within it a considerable body of men and women whose intellectual interests have been broadened and deepened by liberal studies, even though no specific outward result may be traceable to those studies. But apart from this, those who advance such a doctrine go into waters far deeper than they are aware of. If everything for which public or quasi-public funds are used is to be held subject to this dogmatic test of surface utility, we must apply it not only to the kind, but also, to the degree, of service which any proposed expenditure furnishes. If we may not spend quasi-public money to enable students to acquire knowledge or culture for its own sake because this does no service to the public, how shall we justify the spending of public money on objects that are not primary essentials so long as these primary essentials are not supplied in full measure? What right have we to erect handsome public buildings, or to beautify parks, or to acquire works of art, so long as there are bad streets or inadequate schoolhouses or insufficient provision for the poor? And yet, if we had waited to do the apparently less essential things until the essential things had been completely supplied, we should never have had either the one or the other. More things go to the making of a nation or a city than can be enumerated in the census; and the instinctive common sense of mankind has always sanctioned the acquire-

ing of elusive and intangible things, in due measure, even at the sacrifice of things more obviously necessary. But as soon as you grant this, the ground falls from under the feet of those who would deny to a liberal education any standing as an object of public interest, unless it can be justified by some colorable plea of concrete public service.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

Most readers probably thought that the announcement of the death of Goldwin Smith marked the passing of a scholar, a professor, an historian, a publicist; but more than any of these, he was in a very true sense a great journalist. He himself said that he was by preference a journalist. This definition of his chief activity is based not merely upon his voluminous and lifelong contributions to newspapers and periodicals, but upon the method and aim of most of his writing. It was intensely actual and opportunist, in the best meaning of that word. He was deep in history, but his most vivid interest was in that living pageant of present government and politics which is history in the making. Even some of his books—such as his "Political History of the United States" and his "History of the United Kingdom"—have a high touch of journalism. They are like expanded "leaders." Miracles of condensation as those volumes are, and racy with acute characterization, they seem a kind of lofty journalism in their overmastering purpose of flashing all the light to be had from the past upon the instant day.

Forty-five years ago, Cobden said well of Goldwin Smith, "His pen is a power in the state." And what a pen it was! In swift-moving lucidity, in force of phrase, in formidable attack and in even more powerful rejoinder, it was unsurpassed in all the years during which he plied it so busily. Even his ephemeral writings in the press had a masterly ease and a conquering felicity of style. Who like him could embalm a politician in an epigram, or give to even a bitter epithet the character of enduring justice? If his work was essentially journalistic, as he himself, with the grave accuracy in judging himself that he brought to the dissection of others, said that it was, it was a rare species of journalism—dignified, high-minded,

courteous, and shot through with learning and conviction.

In Canada, where Goldwin Smith lived for the past forty years, he held a singular position. It might be said that he was at once the most disliked and the most admired citizen of the Dominion. Politically, he became more and more isolated. He never bowed to gales of popular passion; and the greater the majority against his views, the more insistent was his ice-cool demonstration that the majority was wrong. The machine in politics he hated with a perfect hatred, and upon its successive advances in Canada he poured the vitriol of his scorn. This inevitably made him enemies; and as the national feeling in recent years ran so strongly counter to the views he advocated, he seemed to be a sort of Athanasius *contra mundum*. Yet nothing could rob him of the distinction of being the chief Canadian man of letters; nor did any of those who withstood him question the sad sincerity in which he wrought, or doubt that the blade which he wielded with such effect was tempered in deep conviction. On the occasion of his eighty-sixth birthday, greetings came to him from all parts of the Dominion, as well as from over the border and across the seas; and at that time the *Canadian Courier* justly declared that "the homage paid to Dr. Smith is one which has been evoked by his sincere and lofty personality."

It is this personal quality which will long keep green the memory of Goldwin Smith, even after his books and articles are forgotten. His bearing was always that of one who considered himself a soldier in the war of humanity. To his chivalrous spirit, nothing was more natural than to enter the lists in behalf of justice and liberty; and the angry outcry of the crowd simply meant nothing at all to him. If he was occasionally betrayed into a biting retort—as when he telegraphed to England that Disraeli's attacks upon him in "Lothair" were "the stingless insults of the coward"—in general he set a fine example of the honorable spirit in controversy. In all his long battling for free trade between Canada and the United States, one knows not whether to admire more his intrepidity and resourcefulness or his measured courtesy and sobriety of statement. Some of his best work was unsigned—such as the

reviews which for many years he contributed to the *Nation*.

In so prolonged and incessant an intellectual activity as that of Goldwin Smith, there were inevitable disappointments; and in more than one case even his friends felt that his judgment went sadly astray. But no one questioned the intellectual integrity with which he beat out and defended his views. The world, latterly, did not go according to his mind. Not for him was the flush of the "Happy Warrior" who, in the end of his days, "sees what he foresaw." Yet it could be said of him that through the heat of conflict he kept the law in calmness made. The principles which he espoused in his young manhood animated him through those last remarkable years of his great age, when, amid failing physical powers, his mind gleamed out with all of its early brilliance. His eager keeping abreast of the political and scientific and religious problems of the day; his continued description of himself as yet a learner—though with the pathetic addition that old men have little time left for learning; his undimmed intellectual curiosity, rank him among the most wonderful and inspiring old men that ever lived. In losing him, at last, we are deprived of one of the leading lights of two generations.

ITALIAN BOOKS OF HISTORY.

FLORENCE, Italy, June 1.

Among recent works on historical topography Giuseppe Tomassetti's "La Campagna Romana" is specially notable. It is to be complete in three volumes, of which the first has just appeared (Rome: Loescher, 24 lire). The author attempts to deal with the Roman Campagna in all its aspects and throughout its entire history, classical, mediæval, and modern. The present volume is a general essay on the region, and, after a short chapter on its natural conditions (geology, fauna, and flora), the author proceeds to set forth the really vast amount of information which he has collected during more than thirty years' study of its ancient cities, aqueducts, villas, castles, roads, temples, cemeteries, etc. Agricultural and pastoral life are also treated, both in ancient and modern times, and mention is made of such divers matters as country *osterie*, brigandage, tombs, and popular poetry; and many curious documents are included. It cannot be said that Signor Tomassetti has put all his material together very skillfully; the work is much too diffuse and lacking in

synthesis. But when complete, it will prove a mine of information for the student and provide excellent material for the compilation of a really useful handbook of the Campagna, of which there is need since Abate's admirable guide is somewhat out of date.

Giacomo Barzellotti's volume on Monte Amiata, and the curious religious agitation promoted by David Lazzaretti ("Il Monte Amiata e il suo Profeta"; Milan: Treves, 10 lire), is a curious study of religious psychology. The book is, in part, a reissue of the author's essay on Lazzaretti published twenty-five years ago, but with a great deal of new material added, especially on the history and general conditions of the region which was the background of the movement. Lazzaretti, who was a carrier by profession, became imbued with mysticism at an early age, and assumed the rôle of prophet and advocate of a social and religious reformation which, from the wooded slopes of Monte Amiata, was expected to spread throughout Italy and the rest of the world. By his preachings and writings and by his austere life, he acquired much influence among the mountaineers and the people of the Tuscan Maremma, and was regarded at first with favor by the Clerical party, both in France and Italy, who hoped to use him as an instrument for the reactionary movement then contemplated; but, on account of his subsequent lapses from orthodoxy, he was branded by the Church as a victim of "diabolic illusions." The fanaticism which he aroused among the peasantry disturbed the political authorities, also, who were at that time alarmed at the Clerical intrigues on the one hand (it was soon after the occupation of Rome by the Italian troops) and by the "internationalist" anarchistic outrages on the other. On the occasion of a great religious procession on Monte Amiata there was an affray between the police and the peasants, and the prophet was shot dead. There is still, however, among the people of the district believers in Lazzaretti's divine inspiration and in his forthcoming resurrection. Prof. Felice Tocco adds another contribution to the already large Franciscan literature with his volume "La Questione della povertà nel secolo XIV" (Naples: Perrella, 5 lire), in which he publishes a number of documents on the controversies among the Franciscans, the Dominicans, and the secular clergy, concerning Christ's poverty and the duty of Christians to divest themselves of all property. The Franciscan movement, which had begun as a reaction against the gross corruption and worldliness of the mediæval church, degenerated eventually into a fantastic doctrine, which denied the rights of property and every form of law and even of family life. In the documents collected by Professor Tocco, the arguments on both sides are set forth

in a series of responses to the question put by Pope John XXIII. After hearing the different views, of which the most notable were the replies of Cardinals Della Torre and Vitale on the Franciscan side, and of Cardinals Gangelme de Jean, Pietro Colonna, and Napoleone Orsini on that of the Dominicans, the Pope closed the controversy with the curious bull which declared that any one denying that Christ possessed property, either individually or in common, was guilty of heresy. The author takes the view that this decision, although expressed in a surprising form, was sound, and that the Church performed a useful work in condemning the extreme Franciscan argument. Another unpublished document contained in this volume is the polemical dispute on the same subject between Robert Kilwardly and John Peckham, successive Archbishops of Canterbury.

Historical guidebooks of Italian towns are becoming an ever more popular form of literature, and Dr. Massimiliano Falciai's little volume on Arezzo ("Arezzo, la sua storia e i suoi monumenti"; Florence: Lumachi, 2.50 lire) is a useful addition to the series. Vittorio Lugli has published a work on Italian family life in the fifteenth century ("I Trattatisti della famiglia nel quattrocento"; Bologna: Formiggini, 2.50 lire), based on the letters of historical personages and contemporary treatises regarding domestic manners and civil life. The author believes that the common opinion as to the general corruption during that brilliant period of Italian history is greatly exaggerated, being derived from the licentiousness of many of the courts and from the vices of a few celebrated humanists and men of letters.

More recent history forms the subject of several new books. From the pen of Captain Eugenio Barbarich, a distinguished Italian staff officer and author of an excellent volume on Albania, we have the first part of a work on Napoleon's Venetian campaign of 1796 ("La Campagna del 1796 nel Veneto. Parte prima: La Decadenza militare della Serenissima"; Rome: Voghera). Capt. Barbarich describes the conditions of the military forces of the Venetian republic towards its fall, a subject which has hitherto been neglected, most historians having limited themselves to the far more brilliant exploits of the navy, but which deserves attention as explaining some obscure points of Napoleon's Italian campaigns. He has made extensive researches in the bulky and almost unexplored *filze* of the *Senato Militare*, and of the *Provveditori* Foscari and Battaglia in the Frari archives, which shed much fresh light on the operations of the French army from Lodi to Leoben. The Venetian army was composed partly of mercenaries and partly of the *cerne*, or local forces, levied in time of war and modelled on Machiavelli's proposals for

a national militia. The mercenaries had been declining in efficiency and the summoning of the *cerne* had fallen into disuse. A revival of the latter became necessary, in view of the threatening attitude of Bonaparte, but military capacity was wanting and the proposal to raise fresh levies aroused great opposition. The troops which the Republic was able to collect proved no match for the disciplined veterans of France, and the decrepit government, faced by the Austrians on the one hand and the French on the other, collapsed.

The Società Editrice Libreria of Milan continues the Italian edition of Oncken's universal history. The latest installment is a volume on the Second Empire and the Italian Kingdom ("Il Secondo Impero e il Regno d'Italia"), edited and enlarged from the original German of C. Bulle by Savelli, who often corrects and contradicts the former writer.

A bulky volume on the second Bourbon restoration in France and the July monarchy has been brought out by L. Cappelletti ("La Seconda Restaurazione e la Monarchia di Luglio"; Turin: Bocca, 6 lire), which completes the author's series of studies on French history from the fall of the Bastille to Sedan, filling up the gap between 1815 and 1818. It does not add much to our knowledge of the period, and is, indeed, hardly intended to do so, being merely a piece of careful book-making.

The crop of books on the Risorgimento is larger than usual in this year of patriotic celebrations. Several works on Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition (1860) have appeared, of which the most notable is Alberto Dallolio's "La Spedizione dei Mille nelle memorie bolognesi" (Bologna: Zanichelli, 5 lire). As its title implies, it does not deal with the expedition as a whole, but with the part which Bologna and the Romagna in general played on that occasion. The author has made an exhaustive study of the documents in the Bolognese Museo del Risorgimento, and sheds some fresh light on the history of that wonderful epoch. One of the chief points brought out is the importance of Agostino Bertani's influence. Garibaldi, with all his magnificent audacity, hesitated at the apparent foolhardiness and hopelessness of an invasion of Sicily by a handful of volunteers, and if Bertani, from his sick-bed, had not constantly urged him to persist, he might perhaps have given up the scheme. There were few Bolognese in the first expedition, but the local branch of the famous National Society assisted it in various ways. After the conquest of Sicily it was the Romagnols who organized and carried out the insurrection in the Marche; and this led to the occupation of those provinces by the royal troops, and to the fateful meeting between King Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi which gave birth to the Italian kingdom. The lat-

ter part of the volume is made up of documents, mostly unpublished and of considerable interest. E. T. Moneta, an ex-Garibaldian and now president of the Milan branch of the International Peace Society, is continuing his series of volumes on the Italian revolutionary wars, written in a spirit of genuine and militant (I had almost said military) patriotism. His latest publication is an excellent little monograph on the campaign of 1866 ("Custoza e Lissa"; Milan: Società Internazionale per la Pace, 2.50 lire), in which he sets forth the causes of the Italian defeats in that year—the faulty military preparations, the exaggerated quixotism of Lamarmora, who refused to fall in with Prussia's proposal to promote a rising in Hungary, because he considered it "disloyal," his horror of the revolutionary movement in Italy (which Cavour had skilfully utilized), Bismarck's bad faith, and the imperfect welding together of the various parts of Italy's new army. Custoza was lost, according to Signor Moneta, largely on account of Lamarmora's incapacity to handle large bodies of troops and on account of Gen. Della Rocca's culpable jealousy of his chief, which induced him to keep a heavy reserve force inactive when the arrival of reinforcements would have turned defeat into certain victory. At sea the defeat at Lissa was due to Admiral Persano's utter inefficiency and cowardice, although Tegethoff's real merit deserves recognition.

LUIGI VILLARI.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

A fourth copy of an exceedingly rare and little-known pamphlet, which has been styled the first printed book relating to the settlement of Boston, turned up some months ago in England, and has now come to New York. It consists of title and five leaves, and is the notable "farewell address" of John Winthrop and his fellow-passengers to their friends in England, written just before they were setting out for their new homes in the wilderness. The title in full is, "The Humble Request of his Majesties loyall Subjects, the governour and the Company late gone for New-England; To the rest of their Brethern, in and of the Church of England. For the obtaining of their Prayers, and the removall of suspitions, and misconstructions of their Intentions. London, Printed for John Bellamie. 1630." It is dated "From Yarmouth aboard the Arbella April 7, 1630," and is signed by John Winthrop, the Governor, and six others.

Although there is a copy in the Prince collection in the Boston Public Library, and a second in the Bodleian, the book is almost unmentioned by American historians, though the letter itself is cited and quoted. From a third copy, acquired by the John Carter Brown Library a few years ago, a facsimile reprint was published in 1905. The title is given in full, even to the imprint and date, in Joshua Scottow's "Narrative of the Planting of the Massachusetts

Colony" (Boston, 1694), and the letter is printed entire in the little book "Massachusetts or the first planters of New England" (Boston, 1796), likewise compiled by Scottow. It has also been frequently reprinted since. The "Request" was probably written by John Winthrop, though early writers attributed it to John White, the Puritan divine, called the Patriarch of Dorchester, who was the father of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and author of "The Planters Plea" (London, 1630), which contains in the words of the title-page "a manifestation of the causes moving such as have lately undertaken a plantation in New England." This little book contains the earliest printed account of the planting of the colony, though White himself never came to America.

The Merwin-Clayton Sales Company will sell on June 22 and 23 a miscellaneous collection, including bibliography, books on the drama, some first editions of Tennyson, etc.

On June 24, they will hold the last sale of the season, a miscellaneous collection, including some thousands of photographs and stereoscopic views.

On June 28 Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge will sell in London the library of Thomas Gray, including several very rare American tracts. The most notable of these is Benjamin Thompson's "New England's Crisis," printed at Boston by John Foster in 1676. This is a small octavo of sixteen leaves. The only copy previously known is in the Boston Athenæum library, and that lacks the title-page. Evans, in describing this, surmises that it bore a title similar to "New England's Tears for her Present Miseries," which is actually another book by the same author printed in London and of which the only known copy is in the John Carter Brown Library. Five rare quarto tracts, Higginson's "New England's Plantation" (1630); Vincent's "Relation of the late Battell fought in New England between the English and the Salvages" (1637); Lederer's "Discoveries in three Several Marches from Virginia to the West of Carolina" (1672), and two of the John Eliot "Progress of the Gospel" series are bound together in one volume and sold as one lot.

On June 24 they sell a large collection of Book-Plates brought together by Matthew Dorey of Dublin and other collectors.

Correspondence.

A PERSISTENT FORGERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* for January 28, 1892, contained two communications, from Prof. Morris Jastrów and myself, in regard to certain archæological forgeries which had recently come to light in a sparsely settled region northwest of Lansing, Mich. These consisted chiefly of caskets and tablets of clay on which a medley of ancient writing, with cuneiform and Egyptian as well as Greek characters, had been stamped before drying. They were taken seriously by many people, who found in them evidence of an early colonization of the region from the Orient; particular interest was manifested in a tablet on which scenes from the Deluge

were depicted. The workmanship was of the crudest sort, and the clay contained so much sand that the objects were easily broken; the forger had evidently no acquaintance with the things which he had tried to copy, but was translating into substance designs which he had found in printed form. Publicity destroyed the market for the relics, and after a time nothing more was heard of them.

In 1898 a new series of forgeries appeared. The maker had learned something from his critics, and was improving in technique. The clay was baked hard, and slate also was utilized for designs and symbols of writing. Gaining confidence, the forger fashioned a winged clay figure measuring, with the base, twenty-two inches in height; leaning against it in front was a clay tablet. This image and a number of smaller objects were taken about as an itinerant exhibit, which was advertised as "The finest collection of prehistoric relics ever exhibited in the United States." The venture proved unsuccessful pecuniarily, and the collection was left in charge of the Museum of the University of Michigan.

Three years ago the forger again became active. He had turned his hand to copper. Marvellous were the designs and hodgepodge of strange characters incised, not only on tablets, but also on a rude crown of copper. The surface of the metal had been treated to give it the appearance of antiquity. Here, too, was a Deluge tablet; the pictorial design was almost identical with that previously worked out in clay. The copper objects had the advantage of being free from danger of breakage, easy to work, and last, but not least, more marketable. The centre of distribution was now Detroit. Many collectors were skeptical, yet sales were made, and men of high standing were duped. Again the newspapers gave warning of the true character of the "finds," which continued to be solemnly dug out of mounds in the presence of witnesses. An article presenting the important types in illustrations, and pointing out their fraudulent character, was published in the first number of the *American Anthropologist* for 1908. Nevertheless, since then letters of inquiry from various parts of the United States have borne witness to the activity with which the sale of the bogus relics has been pressed; and finally a volume of plates has been published, in order "to arouse the interest of students of philology or those engaged in historical and archaeological research."

This brochure, which is obviously designed for foreign as well as domestic consumption, bears the title "Engravings of Prehistoric Specimens from Michigan, U. S. A."; and on the title-page stands: "Copyright, 1910, by Rudolph Etzenhouser, Proprietor," with a certification by the engravers "that the halftones are accurate reproductions of the prehistoric originals." With unconscious humor the compiler placed next to the title-page the portrait of a former Secretary of State of Michigan, who is represented as comfortably seated in an armchair; to him, we are told, "belongs the credit of having been for several years the moving spirit in the investigation of these prehistoric relics," one of which, apparently, he holds in his hand. The claims of those who believe in the relics are thus set forth:

Students of American archaeology will find in the following pages, reproductions

of the monuments of a race of primitive Americans, monuments of a people whose existence has hitherto been involved in an obscurity as complete as that which envelops their history. They have been unearthed for the most part, through the efforts of amateur investigators, and represent the contents of hundreds of mounds scattered over the lower peninsula of Michigan. The language inscribed on these tablets has not as yet been interpreted, but will doubtless, some day, succumb to the advance of philology, and they will perhaps yield an interesting chapter to the ancient history of this continent.

The thirty-four plates of objects of copper, slate, and clay make a pitiable showing. They reveal such paucity of design, crudeness of execution, and fantastic incongruity that it is amazing that persons of average intelligence—not to speak of experts—should be deceived. Yet it must be acknowledged that for nearly two decades the forger with cunning, persistence, and a brazen face has been on the alert to entrap the guileless; and so long as human nature remains the same, it may be presumed that men will be ready to believe what they wish to believe, and that no hoax will be too preposterous to be without a following.

The early forgeries of clay and the later objects of copper and slate have in common one cuneiform character which the maker seems to have adopted as his sign manual. A reporter for the *Detroit News* in 1908 directed attention to the fact that while a number of persons were engaged in the exploitation of either the first or the third series of forgeries, one man was connected with both. This is James O. Scottford, a sign-painter, who formerly lived in the region where the first discoveries were made, and afterwards moved to Detroit.

While this Scottford was still living in Edmore, Prof. Charles A. Davis, who is now on the staff of the United States Geological Survey in Washington, heard of the wonderful discoveries he had made and called at his house to see him. He was not at home, but his wife was, and while Mr. Davis and another gentleman were waiting she showed them the relics which were on hand; then, to indicate how remarkable these were, she brought out an encyclopædic volume, "which had a full page plate giving in parallel vertical columns various alphabets of the ancient languages, pointing out from the pictures that this character was like the Greek and that was Egyptian or Assyrian. The resemblances were certainly remarkable, so much so, that they actually seemed to have been copied!"

The origin of the spurious relics is easily accounted for; but for the suggestion of a Biblical element in them they would probably have failed to attract attention, and the maker would long ere this have ceased his operations from lack of encouragement.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

Ann Arbor, Mich., May 31.

THE ARGENTINE SHIPBUILDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Charles F. Dole, in his letter in your issue of May 19, does not strengthen his case against Mr. Knox's foreign policy by his remarks about the Argentine battleships. He accuses the United States government of "persuading Argentina to set up a little fleet," and asks: "Is it not

somewhat like the old-fashioned business of selling muskets and gunpowder to the Indians?" To this question there is one answer: It is not. The Argentine Republic is a progressive civilized nation, quite capable of judging its own needs. It built its battleships because it needed them, and the United States had nothing to do with the decision. If Mr. Dole will refer to Brassey's Naval Annual for 1910, page 53, he will find an illuminating article on the Argentine programme by the well-known naval writer, John Leyland. This article begins: "The Argentine shipbuilding programme is an answer to the Brazilian." In 1907, a year before the cruise of the American fleet, Brazil adopted a programme including three battleships of the Dreadnought type. Argentina's programme was a well-considered defensive move in reply.

As to the share of the United States in the increase of the Argentine navy: Bids were asked for from the leading builders of the world. The contracts were obtained by American firms—quite independent of the government—after what Mr. Leyland calls "one of the keenest competitions ever known in warship-building business." The ships are building in American yards, because American yards have agreed to build them better and cheaper than they could have been built in Europe. There is no justification for the charge that "the United States uses governmental influence to saddle other and poorer peoples with the burden of building battleships"; still less for Mr. Dole's innuendo that the Argentine Dreadnoughts are the result of apprehensions in regard to American encroachments in South and Central America. Mr. Dole would have us believe that the United States government is inducing the South American republics to buy ships to be used against the United States!

FREDERIC SCHENCK.

Oxford, Eng., May 30.

TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a secondary school executive, there increasingly looms before me a problem vitally concerned with the educational success of our country. It is the inability to procure the highest grade teachers for secondary schools and especially to keep them in such service, even when secured. Unfortunately there seems to be a widespread feeling that secondary teaching is to be engaged in only until some college position opens, even though the college position may offer a smaller salary; and few teachers, I fear, contemplate with any degree of joy the thought of a life spent in secondary school work. Of course, there are fine examples to the contrary in some of the older and better known schools, and I am glad to say that on my own faculty I have several teachers who consider their field and opportunities far beyond those of their college friends. But in general my statement is true.

It is easy to see what some of the causes for this are. Among others is the fact that the college and university have always been overemphasized in this country, and the secondary school has received too little attention, even by educational specialists. The emphasis should rather be placed on the preparatory side. Teachers

should be made to feel that the secondary work is just as dignified, and just as important as the college work, and they should know that the chances for making deep impressions on their pupils and accomplishing real good are greater in the former than in the latter.

Another difficulty is that the teaching profession is adopted by many for the time being until they can get some money and go on with their training for other professions. The disastrous results of this practice are evident: it tends to increase the number of changes in school faculties, since naturally most of these teachers occupy secondary positions; it keeps the salaries lower, than they should be, and discourages any who might be inclined to consider teaching as a life-work. It should be the duty of every college professor to withhold from the business of teaching all his pupils who do not intend to make it a life profession.

Another hindrance to permanence in the ranks of secondary teachers is the fact that so many schools have such poor endowments that they cannot compete with the colleges in the matter of salaries, and that the Carnegie pension fund and the Rockefeller foundation do not apply to this field. Naturally the best teachers will seek the college ranks, in order that they may become eligible to pensions, unless some similar fund is established for the secondary schools. While helping to solve the college problem these funds are making the case of the secondary school harder than before. And it must inevitably follow that if the preparation for college is in any way weakened, the colleges themselves will suffer. Not only must the friends of secondary education fight in its behalf, but those who are especially interested in the college and university must for self protection give their aid. It is to be hoped that the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation can be induced to consider this vital problem in American education, or that some other rich benefactor will see the justice of the secondary schools' claims and hasten to their rescue. We must induce more of our really capable young men to enter teaching as a life vocation, with an especial view to remaining in the secondary field; and to do this the dignity of such schools must be raised and their ability to pay living wages and hold out proper inducements must be much increased.

NATHAN WILBUR HELM.

Principal, Evanston Academy, Evanston, Ill.
June 10.

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent article on "The Rhodes Scholarships" (*Nation*, May 12) is in the main sound and just. Some of your readers, however, may be misled by the great emphasis you there lay upon the fact that "the trustees of the fund have refrained from passing judgment on the merits of the scheme." The Oxford secretary to the Rhodes trustees, Mr. F. J. Wylie, has by no means been silent in the matter. From the first he has expressed himself freely, and in these very columns we have had semi-official accounts of the Rhodes scholars which were far from dis-

couraging. In a very interesting pamphlet, "Cecil Rhodes and His Scholars as Factors in International Conciliation" (published by the American Association for International Conciliation), Mr. Wylie has recently given us again his hopeful opinions. In your article you say that "the influence of the Rhode scholars upon Oxford has been exaggerated." In the pamphlet cited, p. 13, Mr. Wylie says:

I will therefore content myself with saying that I believe the great majority of those who know the younger Oxford of today would agree, both that it has become in these recent years more catholic in its sympathies and broader in its outlook, and that the contribution of the Rhodes scholars to that result has been material if unobtrusive.

The closing paragraph of his pamphlet is also important. We read:

For my own part—if I may be allowed to close with a personal expression of belief—the consideration of these questions leaves me with the conviction that always among the forces making for harmony of peoples ought to be found, and will be found, the Cecil Rhodes Foundation.

Thus we see that to lay great emphasis on the silence of the trustees is misleading.

G. C. SCOGGIN.

University of Missouri, June 1.

ARRESTED DEVELOPMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not read the article in the *Yale Alumni Weekly* noticed in your editorial of May 26 on "Physical Training in College," but I wish to express my approval of your argument. Not all doctors of medicine or surgeons are trained and trustworthy experts for estimating the comparative vitality (staying power) of men apparently equal otherwise, or of one man at different times. How, then, can the physical trainer or the ordinary observer be expected to possess that special faculty? The Yale writer, as you read him, "points out that the period between seventeen or eighteen years and twenty-two or twenty-three years is a period of arrested development." Permit me to add to that observation another: The four or five years ending at seventeen or eighteen have been devoted to such prodigious growth and development that the vitality has fallen off, the power of endurance has become lessened or inhibited, and an equal period of time following is needed to replenish the store. Thus the period of arrested development is a necessity to the man. During this period, if its significance is recognized and respected, his physical development is measurably maintained, while his staying power is in process of becoming restored. Teachers should accustom themselves to view the subject in its entirety, and not in a one-sided fashion.

JAMES S. GREENE.

Dorchester, Mass., June 5.

DR. BLACKWELL'S TRIALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent notice in your columns concerning Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell, recalls an incident that occurred when I was not more than seven years old. A near and dear family of relatives lived within a few miles of Geneva, where Dr. Blackwell was a student in the Medical College. One day, on entering the sitting-room, I found

a dignified stranger present, and as I listened to the conversation I was surprised to see her burst into tears. When she rose to go to her room, she said:

I can hardly tell you how greatly my courage is renewed by coming into your home. But for the feeling that I can have this privilege any Saturday, when my work is laid aside, I scarcely know whether I should hold out.

After she had closed the door, I asked what made her weep, and one of my aunts told me the awful experience Elizabeth was undergoing. She was daily subjected to insults from the young men in the class, which she had been forced to join because she could in no other place be allowed to fit herself to minister to the physical needs of women and children. "When thee has grown to maturity," said my aunt in conclusion, "I trust every avenue to development, including the ballot, may be open to women." S. M. H. G.

Andover, Mass., June 8.

Literature.

CLAY AND DOUGLAS.

Henry Clay. By Thomas Hart Clay, completed by Ellis Paxson Oberholzer, Ph.D. American Crisis Biographies. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. \$1.25 net.

Stephen A. Douglas. By Clark E. Carr, LL.D. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$2 net.

These lives of two great figures in our national history appear now almost simultaneously half a century after their deaths, and may properly be considered together. In some respects the men stand in strong contrast. One was active to advanced age, the other died in his prime; one was the soul of the Whig party, to whom Jackson was the most dangerous of *bêtes noires*, the other was the sturdiest of Jacksonians, inspired by his ideas and character as he began his public career, and faithful to the end to the Jacksonian tradition; the great work of the one was the Missouri Compromise, of the other the undoing of that Compromise and bringing it to naught. Important differences, indeed. On the other hand, both were alike in these respects: poor boys from the older States, they sought what was then the far West, Clay a friendless emigrant from Virginia into Kentucky, Douglas a Vermont boy of nineteen appearing in an Illinois town with his coat over his arm and thirty-five cents in his pocket; both rose speedily to the highest eminence, displaying extraordinary ability in moving and managing men; both failed of the Presidency when to succeed seemed inevitable, a disappointment borne with dignity and magnanimity; finally, it may be said of each that without his powerful and patriotic agency in our political tempests the Union might have ceased to be.

Good books about statesmen of such

rank are not superfluous even though their lives have been written before, and by able men. This biography of Clay is by a grandson, naturally partial and affectionate, but painstaking and truthful: the portrayal has been capably revised and supplemented by Dr. Oberholzer. Mr. Carr, who recounts the story of Douglas, is an old man who heard in part the great debates of 1858, and then and later was on friendly terms with the contestants, of whom he gives interesting personal anecdotes. He declares himself to have been then and at all times a Republican. He writes his book out of full knowledge and in a spirit of candor, believing that full justice has not been done to a man of whose career he in many ways disapproved.

Although Clay and Douglas were dominant figures in almost every great public event which fell in their eras, it was as preservers of the Union that their service was highest; and since their desert here has perhaps not been adequately recognized, we may well devote a little space to the consideration of their work as it is described by these their latest biographers. Rhodes remarks that, had the civil war come ten years earlier, the chances for the South would have been better. Probably the Union could not have survived. In the decade between 1850 and 1860 a number of circumstances came in to give the North strength which earlier it had not possessed. Chief among these were, first, the construction of great railways bringing together East and West. Whereas, prior to 1850, the easy outlet for the West was southward, down the great rivers, the new lines made it more convenient to go eastward, a fact which at once established a powerful link, not before existing, between the Mississippi Valley and the Middle and Atlantic States. Secondly, the foreign immigration, particularly of Germans, began in those years to be heavily felt, adding much to the sentiment against slavery and in favor of national preservation. In 1850 the clash was imminent. That it was postponed ten years was for the North an advantage of the greatest moment, probably of decisive moment. It will not be denied that this happy postponement was due to the Compromise of 1850, in which Clay was the leading spirit. Denounced it was, and in the Fugitive Slave Law it was certainly repulsive, but it served a happy purpose as a temporary bulwark behind which the North had time to grow strong and knit itself together. Clay was an anti-slavery man, as Washington, Jefferson, and Madison were anti-slavery men, thoroughly persuaded that human bondage was an evil, but persuaded, too, that it was so deep-rooted and inveterate that its gradual extinction must be sought, not its sudden abolition. To avert the horrors of war he

was ready to temporize, to permit for a time suffering in order to ward off vastly greater suffering. Vials of wrath and contempt have been poured upon the head of Clay the temporizer, but can it be said he was more a temporizer than Abraham Lincoln, whose views of slavery and methods for dealing with it scarcely differed from those of Henry Clay? As there are good grounds for asserting that the Compromise of 1850 saved the Union by postponing for ten years the civil war, as much, no doubt, can be claimed for the earlier conciliation, equally due to him, the Missouri Compromise of 1820. In that stage of our history the duration of the Union seemed doubtful indeed. The sentiment for its preservation was weak in the North and West as well as the South. The service was great which held the rather uncertain bond together until the influences of a later time reinforced its precarious hold. These facts as regards Clay's desert as a saviour of the Union are, of course, not newly revealed, but they have been to some extent obscured and minimized, and such a setting forth as they receive in this latest biography is not labor thrown away.

If the service of Clay here has lain under unmerited shadow, still more has it been the case with the service of Douglas. His advocacy of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was regarded both North and South as a going over to the South—a judgment proved presently to be quite erroneous when Douglas denounced the Lecompton Constitution, framed by intruders into Kansas, to be a fraud, declared his conviction that the real settlers preferred a free soil, and stood strenuously, therefore, for the admission of Kansas as a free State. Consistency required of him this course; nevertheless, it was brave and manly for him to pursue it. His declaration was unhesitating and unequivocal, without thought of what he must have seen would be the consequence. It estranged from him solidly the South and cost him the Presidency. When the storm broke he hastened with fine magnanimity to the support of his rival, Lincoln. While the shots were falling upon Sumter, Lincoln and Douglas, closeted at the White House, struck hands to resist. Through the Associated Press, together with the tidings of the bombardment, went forth to the country a message from Douglas. He pledged himself unalterably to support the administration in its battle and summoned his followers to do likewise. This impassioned call, reiterated as it was immediately in the speeches at Springfield and Chicago, brought to the Government, as nothing else could have done, the aid of the millions who till then had stood aloof from it. From the platform at Chicago Douglas went home to die; but not before he had rallied to enthusiastic and persistent defence of the Union a

vast army, whose support proved indispensable, and whom only his voice had power to sway. Mr. Carr, a life-long Republican, believing that the man of whom in early life he strongly disapproved has suffered injustice and failed of recognition as a most potent factor in saving the Union, makes very vivid the memorable work of Douglas in his last days; and thus clearly to tell the tale is a work worth while. For Lincoln at the critical moment he made the North solid.

While Clay's anti-slavery sentiment was decided and often strongly expressed, it was yet of that moderate kind which looked to the slow and gradual abatement of the evil, and by no means favored risking the nation's life by an attempt at its sudden extinction. As to Douglas, the woes of the negro affected him but lightly. It was a white man's country, it was the white man's interest that he sought to guard and further, with small thought for the time of bettering the black man's condition. And yet, as Mr. Carr relates, he declined to receive a large fortune in slave property, refusing to become enriched by owning slaves or from the proceeds of their sale. To the impatient consciences of the abolitionists, both men seemed to fall short of their duty. We are not saying here that this judgment was unjust. But with all their imperfections they were statesmen in a high degree well-purposed and able, without whose devoted struggle it is hard to see how the Union could have survived.

CURRENT FICTION.

An Interrupted Friendship. By E. L. Voynich. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Nothing merely light or agreeable is to be looked for from the author of "The Gadfly," but one may have hoped for something a little less clearly reminiscent of that striking book. The literature of obsession is a very old type, centuries older than Peter Schlemihl or Peter Rugg. Poe and Hawthorne developed it in their totally different ways; Mrs. Voynich has been successful in giving it a modern setting. "An Interrupted Friendship" presents a mystery of human character, without venturing upon its solution. It is hard to say whether the man who goes by the name of Felix Alvarez is hero or villain of the tale. We do not know, even at the end, what is the secret of his tragedy. He is a gentleman by birth and breeding; but something has happened in the first hour of his manhood to destroy his faith in human relations—some frightful shock to his moral nature from which he can never recover. He casts family and society behind him, and becomes a wanderer. His personality is winning, and he finds it hard, wander as he will, to keep clear of those bonds of affection

which he dreads and despises. He sinks lower and lower in the scale of living, and has become clown in a South American circus, when a chance of physical rescue comes in the form of a party of French explorers who are going to make their way over the Andes from Ecuador to Brazil, and who need an interpreter. "Rivarez" runs away from the circus, and gets the post of interpreter through the advocacy of one of the party, a young French geographer. This man, René Martel, sees little to be said for the candidate, who bears all the marks of a disreputable adventurer, but is inexplicably drawn to him from the start. Gradually, as the months go on, his feeling for the interpreter becomes the single great emotional experience of René's life, though for a long time he conceals the feeling with shame: they return to France acknowledged friends. René has a sister who, at first keenly jealous, presently falls under the spell of the interloper. But at the height of the three-cornered intimacy Rivarez suddenly and unmistakably withdraws himself, and leaves the brother and sister almost equally stranded in their different ways. They have demanded too much of him—more than the peculiar obsession or curse under which he lives allows him to give. So the blight which lies upon his own life is communicated to theirs. The curious atmosphere of horror in which the author invests the simple incidents of the story is intensified by the vagueness which is allowed to remain, cloud-like, about the looming dreadfulness of that early experience which fixed the fate of Rivarez, and of all who were so luckless as to love him. Morbid is the easy word to apply to this kind of thing; but there is a haunting force in the book which defies so casual an exorcism.

White Magic. By David Graham Phillips. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The bull in the china shop is, perhaps, too vigorous an analogue for this attempt on Mr. Phillips's part to disport himself in the field of romantic comedy, but he has certainly tried to do an unnatural thing. Hitherto we have esteemed his vigorous, if crude performance as the voice of one crying to our edification. We have had other young Lochinvars out of the Middle West, with their lively romantic ways. Far rarer and more valuable the sturdy bruiser, with a heart and thews to fall foul of our little Eastern fashions. Our sybaritic culture, our white-handed young men, our pleasure-seeking young women, our unbridled luxury, have hitherto inflicted upon Mr. Phillips a noble pain. Especially has his righteous indignation been aroused by the thing on the decaying seaboard called "society." He has aimed bitter shafts of irony and invective against it, he has dispatched West-

tern champions hither to trample upon it. In short, he has had "a high old time" at our expense, and we have been glad to pay the bill. The troubling thing is the prospect of his becoming reconciled to us. What if we should presently find him admiring, or affecting to admire, a male something that has come out of Harvard, or a female something that hails from a Newport villa? To that deplorable pass he here draws perilously near. From the band of fashionable romancers he is still happily remote. His present effort aspires rather to the genre of the late Henry Harland—the light and piquant and well-bred. Unluckily, his people are neither well-bred nor especially amusing. The hero, Roger Wade, whose nickname is Chang, is as conventional a hero of the novel à la mode as Mr. Chambers himself could portray. Physically, he is made up for the part—the kind of man called by his sort of girl "stunning." "His countenance, his whole body, seemed an effort of Nature, adequately to express a big nature." The lady in the case is very small, young, fair, and golden-haired. Chang is an "artist" who does not want to marry; and the whole idea of the story lies in the overt pursuit and conquest of him by the girl. She not only does the proposing, she refuses to take no for an answer. Of course, he really loves her desperately, and is grateful to her for bagging him in the end. Mr. Phillips's women are not very "convincing" as a rule; this one is rather ludicrous. She is supposed to be a member of the most exclusive New York set—with the manners and speech of a rather superior shop-girl. No doubt, Mr. Phillips has meant to show the modern woman exercising her privilege of choice. It is a pity he should have chosen to garb his conception in the airy draperies of social comedy. We respectfully suggest that he stick to his blunderbuss.

The Crowds and the Veiled Woman. By Marian Cox. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

If it were not for the altogether horrible ending of this book, the weary reviewer might take a certain grim satisfaction in showing samples of the amazing rubbish through which he had been condemned to wade. "The endeared and mutual meaning of these precincts"; "that grim appearance of the species around you in question-marks, of your own flesh's devising"—this apparently means having children; "he is unite with his soul"; "must involute it from out of himself into the elements of its visibility"; "some point of departure which would lead him from the inward mazes, like an Ariadne thread, and would gather all the scattered threads of his thought and being into one perfect chord"; "the heart bit-

ten by aridity and chills"; "all those puerile, modern anacronisms [*sic*—called love by others—whose inevitable percussion leaves a dead place upon the heart instead of a flame"; "a mysterious, indescribable personae of levitation"; "A wild, frenetic eagerness seized me to make her aware of her circumambience"; "the white finessé of my Othello-like craving"—but one must stop somewhere! The author is hardly more fortunate in French, when she ventures from the safe ground of "mon cher" and "probablement"; "l'amour du beauté est l'horreur de joli" shows what she can do in this line. Her scholarship is evidenced by the interesting statements that "the sunlight was to be to her similar to the blows of Perseus liberating her like an Antigone"; that "Shelley, who deserted Mary, wrote his most exquisite poetry to her."

Why are such books published?

Simon the Jester. By William J. Locke. New York: John Lane Co.

Simon de Gex, M.P., light-hearted man of the world, enjoying apparently perfect health, is told by his physician that he has only six months to live. Thereupon he arranges his affairs, resigns from Parliament, releases himself from a marriage engagement, and calculates how best to pass the short time allotted him. Attracted by a passage in Marcus Aurelius, he adopts a plan of "eumoiriety," which is to give him happiness by indulging in his benevolent impulses. Among other things, his benevolence leads him to undertake the separation of a friend from a woman, a *dompteur* or animal tamer, who is, he thinks, ruining the young man's career. At the end of the six months, he suddenly finds himself relieved of threatened death by an operation, with his money all gone and in love himself with the woman. Marriage with the woman solves one difficulty. For the rest, he turns in his distress, where all troubled heroes turn these days, to the East End, and in place of "eumoiriety" takes up with his wife a kind of mission work among the poor. The first part of the plot is gaily fantastic; the latter sinks to about the worst abused device of the modern novelist who does not know what to do with his people. It is peculiarly lacking in carrying power in Mr. Locke's hands. The real interest of the book is in the whimsical acts and speeches of the characters. Mr. Locke is always master of the humor of irresponsibility; but the wit of "Simon the Jester" seems a bit more labored and less captivating than that of "Septimus," perhaps because one scents from afar the desperate attempt to be serious and socially constructive in the dénouement.

THE OLD MERCHANT MARINE.

The Ships and Sailors of Old Salem. By Ralph D. Paine. New York: The Outing Publishing Co. \$3.50 net.

Within the limits of a review, it is quite impossible to do justice to the variety and extent of the subjects presented by Mr. Paine in this large, handsome, well-illustrated volume. The rise, apogee, and decline of a famous and picturesque New England port, the exploits of her sons off her own coast and in foreign waters; their achievements in carrying her trade to remote parts of the globe; their skill, courage, and farsightedness in war and in peace; their contributions to nautical science, etc., combine to form an epic which finds its appropriate culmination in the extraordinary career of the late Gen. Frederick T. Ward, who created, organized, drilled, and fought the "Ever Victorious Force" which gave the first check to the formidable Tai-ping rebellion, and which, after Ward's untimely death on the field of battle, proved, under a subsequent commander, the instrument by which "Chinese Gordon" earned his chief title to undying fame.

The author himself has been able to present only a general view of his topic, although on occasion yielding to the temptation to enter into the particulars of some exceptionally varied life or some unusually noted vessel. In not a few of such instances, he has wisely used the actor's own words as recorded in log-books, journals, or letters, and so he has brought the writers, as it were, face to face with us of a later day. So diverse are the treasures opened to us in this account that we have only to choose any subject within its scope to have our curiosity immediately gratified. If we seek acquaintance with the early days of the now powerful and growing Empire of Japan, we turn to the log of the ship Franklin, Capt. James Devereux master, which in 1799 was chartered in Batavia to convey to Nagasaki the members of the Dutch Commission which enjoyed the exclusive right to trade with the Japanese; here we obtain the outlines of this first visit of an American craft to those waters together with minute instructions as to the etiquette to be observed on approaching her destination. Following the Franklin, the Salem vessels, Massachusetts, in 1800, and Margaret, in 1801, were similarly chartered. Happily for our benefit, their captains' clerks were brothers, William and George Cleveland, who wrote in copious diaries their experiences and observations during the four months they each spent in this practically unknown harbor and among this little-known people. It is worthy of remark that most of the log-books and letters cited by Mr. Paine are written in a style which for clearness and correctness might serve as models of Eng-

lish composition to-day; while their chirography, in its clear-cut precision, is in marked contrast with the careless slipshod handwriting now but too common. Mr. Paine appears not to have found so many poetasters among these old-time sailors as have others in prosecuting similar studies, happily for him, since a long cruise told in rhyme is a fearsome thing. The pen and ink sketches which adorn some of these old volumes, as he points out, are always interesting, while in the case of Capt. Carpenter of the Hercules they are distinctly creditable and artistic.

If we are interested in maritime events during the War of the Revolution, Mr. Paine gives us a most readable dissertation on the Salem privateersmen of '76, in which are described the transformation of peaceable traders into armed vessels fitted out to prey on British commerce, with the results of their cruising. One chapter is devoted to Capt. Jonathan Haraden's voyages in command of the letters of marque, Gen. Pickering and the Julius Cæsar, than which no fiction of the sea is more entrancing. Time and again, by coolness and sheer audacity, he captured shipping of greater size and superior force in battery and crew. Meeting at dusk the Golden Eagle mounting eight more guns than his own command, he boldly hailed her, announcing that "This is an American frigate, sir. Strike or I'll sink you, with a broadside." And strike the Englishman did immediately. On another occasion Haraden fought three vessels carrying forty-two guns to his sixteen, manœuvring so skilfully as to engage one at a time and capturing them all, to the immense surprise and delight of his crew, who thought that for once their captain had incurred too great a risk. At the end of a stubborn and inconclusive action with a larger and more powerful "king's mail packet" Haraden found himself with only one round of ammunition left in his magazine. Ramming home his last charge, he ranged up alongside of his enemy and hailed her: "I'll give you five minutes to haul down your colors. If they are not down at the end of that time, I will fire into and sink you, so help me God." He had not counted aloud as far as "four" when down came the English colors, and the prize was his. With men of this stamp in command we are quite prepared to read that the 158 privateers sent out from Salem captured 445 sail of British ships.

Of the vicissitudes of the sea-faring life few narratives exceed in long-continued suffering that of Daniel Saunders, who, in the year 1792, was wrecked in the Salem ship Commerce on the southern shore of Arabia. For five weeks he and his comrades made their toilsome way over the sands to Muscat, now helped and now cruelly treated by the natives, only eight of the original

seventeen surviving the hardships. The story was written by Saunders after his return home, and is quoted at considerable length by Mr. Paine. Our modern views of the irresponsibility of youth would seem to require readjustment in view of the fact that those Salem men, in frequent instances, became mates and captains of ships before attaining their majority, sometimes while still in their teens. To acquire a competent fortune and retire while under thirty years of age, was among the actual achievements of certain lucky and resourceful individuals.

Salem merchantmen began pushing into the South Seas only a few years after the British East India Company first traded with the Fiji Islands. Sometimes they paid for their temerity with their lives, sacrificed in conflict with natives; or in the loss of their vessels through shipwreck in uncharted waters. It was the tragic fate of the Salem ship Friendship, Capt. Charles M. Endicott, in 1830, which brought about the dispatch of the United States frigate Potomac, Commodore John Downes, to Quallah Battoo on the west coast of Sumatra in the following year, with instructions to punish the treacherous Malays who had killed many of the Friendship's crew and had seized, gutted, and burnt the vessel. Thereafter our flag was highly respected in those quarters and our trade was prosecuted with less hostile interruption. Less picturesque but equally honorable are the careers of certain Salem merchants whose sagacity and enterprise made their town famous and whose sails were to be found the whole world over. Yet even these had served an apprenticeship afloat before taking to the counting-house on shore, as had also Nathaniel Bowditch, author of the "Practical Navigator," still indispensable to those who navigate the seas on account of his methods, which, while accurate, are so simple that the humblest sailor who can read, write, and cipher, can employ them with confidence.

We get in Mr. Paine's book some insight into piracy in the seventeenth century and into its last flickering less than a hundred years ago; a fairly adequate picture of Yankee seamen in British prisons; the story of the building of the Essex, famous in the War of 1812 for her work in the Pacific Ocean and for her surrender by the first David Porter to superior force off Valparaiso; an account of Salem's second contribution to privateering in that same war, but, to her credit, very little about the slave trade. While not wholly guiltless under this head, Salem appears to have had but a minimum share in this nefarious traffic. The spirit of her best men speaks in the language of Capt. Jonathan Ingersoll, of Elias Hasket Derby's ship, Grand Turk, whose "employers

would rather sink the whole capital employed than directly or indirectly be concerned in so infamous a trade."

The author fails to draw the proper distinction between continental (naval) vessels, state vessels, privateers, and letters of marque. For example, the Protector and the Jason were Massachusetts crafts, and were not commissioned by Congress. The work is not free from unimportant errors, such as northwest for northeast monsoon, etc. At times, it lacks specific reference to the authority cited; and the index is quite incomplete, a real fault in a volume of this encyclopædic nature.

Marcus Aurelius and the Later Stoics.

By F. W. Bussell, D.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.

Vice-Principal Bussell's volume is certainly in one sense the boldest that has yet appeared in the series of *The World's Epoch-Makers*. To cram page after page of a book with Latin and Greek quotations, generally untranslated, savors more of the seventeenth than the twentieth century, and argues considerable audacity. Those who know their classics will get their reward, though they may be irritated by a fortuitous placing of the Greek accents which often suggests ignorance in addition to carelessness in this matter on the part of the author. But accents are not philosophy, and our only serious criticism of Dr. Bussell's quotations is that they will frighten many an otherwise worthy reader from an unusually thoughtful and penetrating book. Dr. Bussell has an epigrammatic way of putting things. "The practical bent of the Roman mind transferred the Stoa from a mere house of dogmatic paradox into a temple of a devout, though despairing, Theism," he says, and an old truth suddenly becomes fresh. Or he makes a memorable distinction: "Now, the whole difference of philosophic system depends on the one question, Whether the starting-point is from the moral or the intellectual side." Or he translates criticism into poetry: "Thus, in a sense, philosophy performs by anticipation the work of death, showing the constituents, unweaving, like Penelope, the texture of daylight in the gloom of an ascetic wisdom."

But these aphorisms are the adornments and allurements on the way of a substantial and even austere argument. Dr. Bussell takes up the criticism of Seneca and Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius from a point of view which gives him at once the entrance into the heart of their logical contradictions and their unity of intention. "The tendency of all Pantheism," he says in one place, "is to separate more sharply than before the natural mechanism in which it starts, from the transcendent spirit, in which it invariably ends. Every at-

tempt to unify the world in a gigantic and audacious synthesis issues in this strange Dualism." More specifically he applies this truth to Stoicism:

A like fate probably awaits all schools which start from an assumption of original Unity. Stoicism is but one of many which end in a complete reversal of their most fundamental axioms. Monism has passed into the harshest Dualism; Pantheism into an impossible transcendence; sternness, certainty, and effort into doubt, compassion, and resignation.

Stoicism thus becomes to Dr. Bussell an example of the attempt to supplant the natural and inevitable dualism of the moral sense with a monism created by the reason, and he studies with remorseless penetration the process by which this monism breaks up under the stress of a life into a false dualism which simulates the true. Not often has this reviewer read pages of philosophy which seemed to him to come nearer the heart of things than the chapters in the present work which set forth the Stoical paradox of a universe at once eternal and transient, divine and contemptible, and of a devotion to God side by side with a hatred and scorn of God's embodiment and activity in the world. Hence the pathos of the later Stoic writers. In only one important point do the conclusions of Dr. Bussell appear questionable. Stoicism, he thinks, was driven into fatal self-contradictions because it started out with a false synthesis of religion and science, but "to-day we approach the study of an objective world free from all religious presupposition. Above all, we have abandoned the precarious assumption of teleology." Dr. Bussell would seem not to be aware of the movement which is leading many biologists to abandon the pure Darwinian hypothesis and to assume in the working of evolution a power distinguished more by name than by fact from the old teleological design. The strong, almost poignant, *actualité* of Dr. Bussell's treatment of the ancient Stoics might be taken to show that he himself was aware of a profounder kinship between their philosophy and certain difficulties and tenets of the present day than his own words admit.

Essays on the Spot. By Charles D. Stewart. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. \$1.25 net.

From the best of Mr. Stewart's essays, we get a flavor which recalls Lowell's too rare casual papers. Whether from a convalescent bed he watches the work and antics of Chicago spiders, or in the open notes the prowess of a wheel ox, or, while splitting the boulder jewels on a moraine, indulges in cosmic reflection—there is a strong, winning, humorous, companionable quality about the man. To say frankly how

good he thought the little epic of *Bully*, the wheeler, the reviewer would have to employ superlatives prudently denied by the overruling editorial providence. Let the reader judge not by opinion but by sample:

In common with other stagg, philosophic wheelers, Bully had another ability that surpasseth human wisdom. On dry, hot days, at three o'clock in the afternoon, he would suddenly "wo" on his own authority, and having brought them all to a stop he would drop in the furrow. Without any ceremony whatever, he would stop them and plump down on the prairie like a big frog in a pond. The idea of taking a rest seemed to strike him in the head with the force of a sledge-hammer and fell him to earth; and then he would deliberately start chewing the cud. When he did this you could not make any impression nor have any influence with him until the appointed time had come. While you mauled his stout carcass, or put your boot-heel into his strong ribs, or prodded him with the whip-stock, he would ruminate in holy quiet, looking out upon the world with a mild and gentle eye. You might torture his body if you would; you could not affect his inner spirit. He had retired within himself; he had duties with his digestion. In this posture he had a distended Falstaffian paunch and an air according: "Shall I not take mine ease in my furrow?" He seemed to have taken in his feelings where they would be out of harm's way; and I have thought at times that he might be one of those who believe in faith.

While Mr. Stewart is at his best out-of-doors, the flexibility of his humor and common-sense tell in other matters. Excellent is the essay "On the Study of Grammar." It goes without technicalities to the marrow of those bothersome forms, the prepositions and adverbs, makes them almost dramatically interesting. We liked also a shrewd interpretation of Kipling's much discussed story "They." It is for our author an allegory of the writer and his public. Very disconcerting is a lengthy commentary on Coleridge's dream poem, "Kubla Khan." Here Mr. Stewart, with quite extraordinary ingenuity dips in and fishes out an entire statement of man's place in the universe, a metrical compendium of universal theology and philosophy. For a time, one suspected a solemn hoax, but the comment is ultra-serious. Mr. Stewart has the mediæval moralizers of Ovid and the recent Baconians fairly beaten, for they never managed to make so much out of so little. And it is oddly unlike the Mr. Stewart we know. Was it foisted into the book by "another man of the same name"? For one reader, who has twice perused the argument it is far too good to be true. In any case this labored, philosophical essay is out of harmony with the mood of this charming book. We wish Mr. Stewart might have set his trap for the unwary reader in the more candid form of a monograph. But to the celebrant of the Chicago spiders and of Bully, much should be forgiven.

A Military Consul in Turkey. By Capt. A. F. Townshend. With many illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$3.50.

A British military consul has opportunities of seeing and knowing conditions in Turkey which are hidden from the ordinary resident or traveller; and, on the other hand, his official position is apt to form a partition wall to shut out from his ken some of the things which come within the experience of the unofficial. Capt. Townshend was stationed for about two years at Mersina, in Cilicia, and for a year at Adrianople. His term of service shortly preceded the revolution and overthrow of Abdul Hamid. Both regions in which he served were much disturbed, and a considerable part of his duties seems to have been to protect the Christian populations from oppression or massacre. He sought to get around the partition wall of officialdom by unexpected journeys into disturbed districts, to see with his own eyes the actual conditions, much to the annoyance of the Turkish authorities. He visited, indeed, no unexplored regions, and saw no new things; but, on the other hand, he knew how to use both eyes and ears, and has given a very interesting and instructive account of his experiences and an unbiassed survey of the conditions existing in Turkish Rumelia and southeastern Asia Minor in the years just preceding the revolution. His narrative, while discursive and rough-and-ready in method, and partly on that account very easy reading, leaves a good general impression of the whole matter.

The state of civilization which he describes is fairly comparable with that of mediæval Europe as portrayed, for instance, in Reade's "Cloister and the Hearth"; conditions in Turkey being complicated, however, by the tangle of overlapping races and religions. It is evident that, with all his experience and observation, the Young Turks' revolution, which followed so soon after his departure from the country, was a complete surprise to the author. He discusses the new régime in the last chapter, not very sympathetically or very hopefully. He does not see how Moslem and Christian, much less the conflicting Christian races themselves, can permanently act together. A little glimpse of Koniah in an earlier chapter suggests a partial solution of the problem. This town developed into a busy, cosmopolitan industrial centre as a result of the construction of the Bagdad railway; and here the Armenian dwelt safely in the midst of Turks, Kurds, and Circassians at the very time that a couple of days' journey away his fellow-countrymen were being massacred by the same kind of neighbors. The construction of railways, the opening of mines, the development of industrial enterprises of all

sorts, under a more liberal and enlightened government, will be the most efficient means of uniting the divergent and antagonistic elements of the population, by giving them both a common interest and a rational outlet for their energies.

Notes.

The Oxford University Press announces that publication of Dr. Sidney Lee's "French Renaissance in England" has been postponed until early autumn.

A new collection of stories of the late Sydney Porter (O. Henry), entitled "Whirligigs," is announced for publication in September by Doubleday, Page & Co.

A. C. Armstrong & Son, it is announced, have disposed of their publishing business and its good will to George H. Doran Company, publishers and agents in America for Hodder & Stoughton of London. By this disposal the interests of Hodder & Stoughton in this country are amalgamated.

Forthcoming publications announced by the Columbia University Press include "The Authorship of 'Timon of Athens,'" by Dr. Ernest H. Wright; "Stage Decorations in France in the Middle Ages," by Dr. Donald C. Stuart; and "English Tragicomedy," by Dr. Frank H. Ristine.

The Baroness Bertha von Suttner has about finished a new ethical novel, the hero of which is an American of the best type. In this book, entitled "Der Menschheit Hochgedenken," she utilizes the present vogue for aviation to admonish mankind to take an equal interest in mental and ethical flight.

D. Appleton & Co. announce that "The American Year-Book" for 1910, which will be published in February, 1911, is now in preparation. This will be an annual summary of national events, but will include also some account of the most important happenings in foreign countries. The chairman of the board of supervisors of this publication is Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, and the managing editor is S. N. D. North, recently director of the United States Census.

The next international convention for liberal religious thought will meet at Berlin, from the 6th to the 10th of August. The first of these world congresses was held in London in 1901, the second in Amsterdam in 1903, the third in Geneva in 1905, and the fourth in Boston in 1907. The convention will be termed Weltkongress für freies Christentum und religiösen Fortschritt, and one of its special purposes will be to acquaint outsiders with the religious life and progressive theological scholarship and religious problems of Germany. The announcement of the German committee declares that the Berlin meeting comes at an opportune moment, since a strong revival of religious interests is making itself felt throughout the fatherland. The president of the congress is Dr. K. Schrader, member of the German Parliament.

The pace of Scribner's Memorial Edition of Meredith is quickening. We have again to note two new volumes (XI and XII) containing "Beauchamp's Career." The illus-

trations in these volumes are photogravures of Watts's well-known portrait of the author, painted in 1893; The Estuary from Holly Hill, the home of Admiral Maxse, Meredith's intimate friend at the time the novel was written; Bursledon, the scene of Nevil Beauchamp's death; and The Old Bridge at Bursledon.

From Maurice Hewlett's novel "Open Country," have been extracted John Senhouse's "Letters to Sanchia" (Scribners). Since they imply a complete episode of love and renunciation, and withal a kind of philosophy of life, their severance from context gives them new emphasis. John Senhouse, realizing one day that he was a free man, walked out of his student's rooms at King's, Cambridge, and became a self-supporting and self-respecting vagabond. A little writing and sketching earned him a cart, a horse, and a tent, with which he proved all the contacts of the roads. It was, however, contact with an eager girl, Sanchia Percival, that impelled him to philosophize and justify his manner of life. His letters to her are a strange mixture of love, impressionistic observation of nature, and guesses at the mysteries of social and individual life. The style is that really eloquent combination of the torrent, the gasp, and the sputter, which, begun by Carlyle, was further developed by Browning and George Meredith. Senhouse wins Sanchia's love, but moved by a double feeling of the impossibility of roadside life for her, and of the inherent unfairness of the marriage bond, leaves her, in lieu of a heart, plentiful fine phrases. Obviously, he is a quite familiar literary figure—the wistful wayfarer of the high romantic stamp who loves and passes, taking refuge instinctively in the free depths of his own personality. Yet Senhouse is not merely the traditional seeker for the blue flower. He has a distinctly modern quirk, or if you will improvement, is convinced that his vagabondage is for the healing of the nations. Let people walk out and be free. Let them stop doing the stupid things that mean wealth and bondage, and elect poverty, freedom, and the road. Again Senhouse is modern in preaching an evangel which he knows will not be heard. His hope is that Socialism will so drastically show the irksomeness of bonds that men will at last be driven, through despair, to his own ideal of freedom. Meanwhile, he talks on the road and sets a good example. Eliminate Senhouse's poetry—an unfair but still clarifying measure—and there remains an old-fashioned, isolated, heart-hungry romantic hero wrapped up with a new-style philosophical anarchist. In a literary way the blend is acceptable; as a fresh glance at the regimented fatuity of the world the letters may even seem important. Philosophically the remedy and its discoverer are compounded of incongruous stuffs. The little book epitomizes the oddly unharmonized elements of Mr. Hewlett's great talent, its fundamental romanticism interpenetrated with an alien realism.

"Rivers and Streams of England," painted by Sutton Palmer, described by A. G. Bradley, is one more of those handsome octavos with colored illustrations which are favored by the Messrs. Black of London (New York: Macmillan). Mr. Palmer's sketches are executed with a solidity and precision which bring them through the ordeal of process reproduction apparently unscathed.

Mr. Bradley's facile vein is too familiar to need characterization. He is fully alive to the picturesque, piscatorial, and legendary features of the streams he follows, and not unmindful of the folk who inhabit the valleys. He takes especial pleasure in the moorland sources of the famous English rivers, preferring these friendly and accessible spots to the sublimities of crag and glacier. These high open moors he thinks are unique. They are not quite so. Their arid counterpart may be found in the high pastures of the Apennines. In spring or early summer the resemblance is close enough to satisfy the most homesick "Englishman in Italy." This is an unusually attractive book.

"Ruskin and his Circle," by Ada Earland (Putnam), brings to focus certain considerations which are slurred in other biographies. Proper emphasis is given to the extraordinary coddling and tyranny he underwent from his parents. At thirty-eight he was ordered to cancel a lecture appointment, and to say "that his parents objected." His physical dependence, narrow evangelical influence, and the absence of normal companionship in youth did much to foster the over-sensitiveness that finally undermined him utterly. This book speaks quite frankly about the ill-omened marriage. Of the honeymoon, with the bridegroom shattered, travelling under his mother's charge, and the bride a kind of tolerated companion, a pathetically vivid picture is given. Certainly no genius, unless it was Elizabeth Barrett, was ever more untowardly "familiar," and she had the supreme good luck to escape in time. Ruskin's intimacies with the Pre-Raphaelites, with Carlyle, Lord Acton, Kate Greenaway, and others are pleasantly described. The belated passion for Rose La Touche is sympathetically treated. Of fresher interest is a charming bit of epistolary philandering with old Miss Susanna Beaver, who lived across Coniston Mere. There are chapters on Ruskin's ventures in publishing, on his teaching in political economy and education, and on St. George's Guild. While reverent in tone, this book divests Ruskin of something of his awfulness, as a sage, and brings us nearer the real man. In one way or another he was always struggling with principalities and powers, the most formidable of which had their seat within himself. No prophet, surely, was ever more completely a victim of the régime he desired to overthrow. The present tendency is to underestimate his personality and his doctrine. The truer view is that his vision was almost infallible within its range; he merely had more blind spots than most critics of his power. If we use him where he saw, and ignore the cases in which he judged *a priori*, he will seldom fail us. In reminding us how readily he attached to himself the best thinkers and finest personalities of his age, this book will help rehabilitate the memory of a great and misunderstood genius.

The valuable portions of H. K. Sander-son's "Lynn in the Revolution" (W. B. Clarke Co.), with its 504 pages, could be condensed into seventy-five or eighty pages. The first volume contains 148 pages of military history of the American Revolution, gathered from a few standard secondary works, and has no value either literary or historical. Following that is one of the useful parts of this publication, the "Nar-

rative of Henry Hollowell of Lynn, Respecting the Revolution in 1775, 1776, 1777, 1778, 1779, to January 17, 1780." This is thirty-four pages in length, and contains the observations of a man who had eyes to see and some sense of humor. We are not told whether the journal was written from notes made during the war, or from memory, but internal evidence would indicate the latter. It is a fairly interesting account of scenes and incidents common in the Revolutionary period. It is properly reproduced, exactly as its illiterate author wrote it, bad grammar, poor spelling, and incorrect capitalization. This is the only evidence the editor gives of his knowledge of the accepted canons of scholarly editing. The remainder of the first volume, and all of the second volume, are taken up with biographical sketches of the Lynn soldiers who fought in the American Revolution. These sketches are made up of a hodge-podge of information gained from local newspapers, family traditions, tombstones, and town records. This consumes 281 pages, of which the useful part is some half-dozen letters written during the Revolution, and some quotations from the records of the town meetings not presented elsewhere. The book contains a large number of good illustrations, few of which have anything more than local interest. As a whole the work is little better or worse than the average local history. Its patriotism is a little less fervid than that we have become schooled to endure.

Mrs. George Cran is an alert-minded Englishwoman, who was commissioned to visit western Canada and report upon the opportunities for educated women in that land of promise. Her impressions are recorded in "A Woman in Canada" (Lippincott). Every facility was afforded her to study the conditions of life on the Western prairie farms, and she describes what she saw there with the skill of a trained journalist. Some things she criticises frankly and fearlessly, but, on the whole, her attitude is decidedly sympathetic. She does not hesitate to advise her fellow-countrywomen to go to western Canada. England is overcrowded with women, whereas the prairie lands of Canada are crying for them by the thousand. Canada wants women of breeding and endurance, educated, middle-class gentlewomen, many of whom are struggling to-day to make a living in the severe competition of the mother country. She promises them a reasonable certainty of success, if they will adapt themselves to the conditions of a new land. They may look forward to absolute independence, if they will; but Canada needs them primarily to become the mothers of future generations. The Western provinces are full of bachelor farmers, but wives are hard to find. Incidentally, Mrs. Cran enlivens the pages of her book by many vivid sketches of Canadian scenes, and Canadian types, East and West, and leaves one with the conviction that the freshness and vigor and optimism of that land of opportunity made a deep impression upon her heart.

The "Anti-Pragmatism" of Prof. Albert Schinz, already noticed in the *Nation* (May 6, 1909), appears in an English version (Small, Maynard & Co.), enriched with a "Warning to Readers of this Edition," and three appendices, of which the first sets forth at length the author's complaint that the scholars of Pragmatism have refused to understand his book or to take it seri-

ously. The English rendering, since it is the work of the author, must be supposed faithful; it is at times divertingly unidiomatic.

The title of Dr. J. M. O'Sullivan's "Old Criticism and New Pragmatism" is scarcely indicative of the book's contents and character. The author or the publishers, no doubt, felt that in book-selling "Pragmatism" is a word to conjure with. The volume is, in fact, composed of three somewhat loosely connected and relatively technical studies. The first, "a comparison of the methods of Kant and Hegel as illustrated by their treatment of the category of quantity," which has already appeared as a monograph in German, fills two-thirds of the volume. The second is a destructive criticism of Kant's reasonings about causality. The third examines the epistemological method of Pragmatism, and analyzes with much penetration the relations of that doctrine to the Kantian theory of knowledge. The author is one of that increasing group of philosophers of the younger generation who, though learned in all the wisdom of the Hegelians, adopt a realistic metaphysics. The sumptuous form of the volume, and the high level of technical competency that characterizes its matter, justify a regret that philosophical books bearing an Irish imprint are quite so great a rarity. (Gill & Son, Dublin; imported by Longmans, Green & Co.)

The supplement of Vol. XXXVII (pp. 313), Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, yields invaluable data to the student of Far Eastern chronology. The elaborate apparatus of the late William Bramsen is reproduced with revision and supplement, and Prof. Ernest W. Clement adds comparative chronological tables of the Christian era, Japanese, Chinese, and Korean eras and rulers, with the years of the sexagenary cycles from 660 B. C. to 1910 A. D. Rev. C. F. Sweet furnishes notes and Professor Sakuma a supplement, the whole making, with indexes, a unique handbook.

"An Introduction to Old French Phonology and Morphology," by F. B. Luquiens (Yale University Press), makes no attempt to supplant the standard work by Schwan-Behrens. On the contrary, Professor Luquiens's efforts have been directed toward making this grammar less difficult to comprehend; to the treatment of the verb, especially, he has added certain mechanical helps, some of which, however, will seem questionable to the stricter type of scholar. The book will be welcomed chiefly by those candidates for the doctorate to whom the German of Schwan-Behrens is insurmountable.

"Im Vaterland," by Paul V. Bacon (Allyn & Bacon), is a manual of information about Germany and German institutions, in the form of colloquies. It was "made in Germany." It is abundantly illustrated with characteristic photographs; it has an appendix of poems and songs, with music, and statistical as well as explanatory notes. The test of experience only can determine whether a hundred and fifty pages of conversation, here and there rather obviously so manipulated as to satisfy young American curiosity about the Fatherland, may not prove monotonous. Mr. Bacon believes that dialogue is the most stimulating form of exposition for learners. There can be no

doubt that his short chapters can be used to advantage concurrently with other reading. The editorial glosses and the Vocabulary are careful and helpful. The book is a worthy companion to the author's popular Grammar.

Klara Hechtenberg Collitz covers with her "Selections from Early German Literature" (American Book Company) the primitive Germanic territory in general, and the mediæval period in Germany, with versions in modern German that best preserve the spirit of the originals, without departing too much from the original form. This anthology, like Professor Thomas's, will serve at least to give a glimpse into what otherwise might be a shelf of closed books to students who are not specialists in Germanics, but who wish to know something about the works they hear of in lectures or read of in literary histories. A bibliography calls attention to sources and editions for those who wish to go farther.

Lucretius and Cicero had both to face the task of creating a philosophical terminology for a language that seemed less fitted than Greek to express abstract ideas. Dr. Katharine C. Reiley's "Studies in the Philosophical Terminology of Lucretius and Cicero" (Columbia University Press) is an attempt to show how far the two philosophers succeeded, how far they had to fall back on Greek, and how their methods differed. This is an inquiry that could not be handled exhaustively in a brief study of 125 pages, though the discussion is of course limited to the field in which their philosophical interests coincide, the mechanical and physical side of Epicureanism. Lucretius's famous phrase about the poverty of his mother tongue—*patrii sermonis egestas*—is his excuse for coining hundreds of new words, and for introducing not a few from the Greek. But, as Munro pointed out, in a passage that Dr. Reiley might have used, the philosophical Latin of Lucretius is much clearer than the Greek of his admired Epicurus and Empedocles. Could Euripides have expounded their theories more lucidly? Even Lucretius dropped his modest airs about Latin when he said:

quod obscura de re tam lucida pango
Carmina, musæo contingens cuncta lepore.

Cicero came to the work with complete confidence in his native language and shows greater facility than Lucretius in the same field, as is indeed natural since he was not hampered by verse. The weak point of this comparative study lies there; the poet and the prose-writer had two very different problems to solve. Dr. Reiley's discussion of special groups of terms is clear and careful, especially of such debated questions as the precise meaning of the Lucretian *omne* and *inane*. The question whether Cicero edited Lucretius is not discussed.

Sir George Newnes, publisher of a number of English magazines, died in London last week, aged fifty-nine years. He founded his first venture, the weekly magazine known as *Tit-Bits*, in 1881, and from then on was chiefly engaged in publishing, giving some attention to politics. At one time or another, he founded and bought the *Westminster Gazette*, the *Review of Reviews*, the *Strand Magazine*, the *Wide World*, *Country Life*, *Garden*, the *Ladies' Field*, *Woman's Life*, and the *Scholar's Own*.

Koloman Mikszáth, the noted Hungarian writer, died recently in Budapest. His works, which include political and humorous writings, fiction, descriptions of folk-life in Hungary, and several longer poems, fill thirty volumes. Upon the celebration, not long ago, of the fortieth anniversary of his literary career, an estate was presented to him by his admirers.

Science.

CAMERA-HUNTING IN AFRICA.

Camera Adventures in the African Wilds: Being an Account of a Four Months' Expedition in British East Africa, for the Purpose of Securing Photographs of the Game from Life. By A. Radcliffe Dugmore, F.R.G.S. With 140 photographs from life by the author. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$6 net.

This is Mr. Dugmore's readable and modest narrative account of his remarkable achievements as a camera-hunter of African big game. That he was not the first man to take a camera into the African wilds, readers of the literature of animal photography are aware. C. G. Schillings photographed African animals—even the most dangerous of them—in their natural habitats, several years ago; and he has published two or three books showing the results of his work, notably "Flashlights in the Jungle," which contains perhaps the best of the pictures he secured, and which appeared in this country in 1906. And Herr Schillings himself was preceded by Edward North Buxton, the English sportsman, who advocated the substitution of the camera for the rifle many years ago, and was at first well-laughed at for venturing the suggestion.

So far as actual results are concerned, Herr Schillings's work was the most remarkable that had been done up to that time; and his photographs of the bathing rhinoceroses, the zebras and the leopard at water-holes, and a picture of the giraffe which bears his name, still stand as fine examples of skilful work with a camera. But it must be admitted that Mr. Dugmore's achievements are even more remarkable, and, from the point of view of the naturalist, more valuable than are those of his German predecessor. The flashlight picture of a fine maned lion, which forms the frontispiece, is virtually a perfect likeness of the animal, standing broadside on at a distance of about twelve yards, and showing the characteristic savage expression. This is a veritable triumph in animal photography. Still more extraordinary are the pictures of the rhinoceroses, and especially the one of a huge bull, taken at a distance of fifteen yards; the enraged brute was actually charging Mr. Dugmore. There are three other pictures of charging

rhinoceroses which likewise give clear ideas of the animals' appearance, and several which show them at rest in characteristic surroundings, and usually attended by their friends, the tick birds, which feed upon the parasites that infest them.

Besides the extraordinary lion picture already mentioned, Mr. Dugmore got, with a second camera, another picture of the same animal from a different position, showing him advancing toward a dead zebra, which was used as a bait, and there are also two photographs, taken at close quarters, of a pair of lions—one of them wounded—who stalked the author in broad daylight. There are a dozen pictures of hippopotami, showing these uncouth animals in groups or singly, in the water and on land, and several of these are very life-like portraits. A decidedly interesting picture shows a group of about a dozen Grant's zebras digging for water in the sandy bed of the Algeri River, and there are five other studies of the two species of this beautiful animal shown in its natural haunts, in groups or as individuals, including a remarkably clear and expressive full-page portrait of a perfect specimen of the Grant's type. Mr. Dugmore was also successful in getting characteristic pictures of giraffes, and one of the most informing illustrations in the book shows a herd of six of these strange creatures, in single file and all clearly outlined against the sky—the work of a telephoto lens at a distance of 375 yards. Other animals of which Mr. Dugmore got excellent photographs were the buffalo, hartebeest, wildebeest, dik-dik, water-buck, impalla, Grant's and Waller's gazelles, oryx, eland, forest hog, wart hog, hyena, and jackal. And there are many pictures of birds, as well as studies of native savage types, and several good landscape photographs, including some fine views of Mount Kenia.

The striking fact about Mr. Dugmore's work, however, is that the getting of sixty-odd photographs of more than twenty different species of big game, represented the actual killing of probably less than half a dozen animals, and all of these were rhinoceroses or lions, who were shot purely in self-defence. Indeed, Mr. Dugmore's determination to do no unnecessary killing caused him to subject himself to very great danger. For example, he actually had his companion, whom he relied upon to defend him from charging animals, attempt to stop or turn an oncoming rhinoceros with a charge of buck-shot from a shotgun, an experiment which was successful in the first trial, but which was not repeated after this adventure:

No sooner had I seized the camera and moved a little to one side, so as to obtain a better view of the animal in case he charged (unless he charged me first!) than the rhinoceros was up and at us. . . . It seemed incredible that so large an animal

could move with such rapidity. I focussed on him as he rushed toward C and the Masai and the two thoroughly scared boys who were behind them. Almost unconsciously I released the shutter when at the moment a shot rang out. C. was trying to turn the animal with a charge of buckshot. The attempt, however, was futile, and the creature came on without even hesitating. C., realizing that the shot had failed, fired a 12-bore ball from the left barrel, and then seizing his revolver, began firing right into its head as it rushed past him not six feet away. It made straight for the Masai, who stood quietly waiting the onrush, and jumped aside when within touching distance of the big horn. Having missed the Masai, it next turned toward me, just as I was endeavoring to put a second plate in position, so that I might get a picture of the actual encounter. In a hurry, I did not put the plate holder all the way in, as I afterward found to my disappointment. But for the moment I had other things with which to occupy my mind, and the camera became less important than the angry beast, when, to my relief, the Masai, with wonderful coolness drove his spear into the side of the rhinoceros. That turned it toward C., who quickly put another revolver shot into its head, and that decided the bewildered animal to leave us alone, and off it went, heading almost directly toward the terrified caravan.

The description of photographing a lion by flashlight at night gives another glimpse of the great danger to which the author exposed himself:

For about two hours I had been straining both eyes and ears, when suddenly to my astonishment a huge lion appeared. . . . As far as I could judge, the big creature was staring at us, and I scarcely dared reach over to my companion and whisper the word "lion." Fortunately, he awoke without making any noise, and leaning gently over me he had his first look at the animal. . . . After a flashlight goes off one can see nothing for several minutes, so the lion might come without our knowing anything until he was on top of us, when shooting would be too late. . . . While we were getting ready for this, the lion seized the zebra, and without the slightest effort turned it round. Fearing that he would carry it off beyond the reach of the cameras, we hurriedly took aim, and as I pressed the electric flash release we both fired. The two shots rang out simultaneously with the explosion of the powerful light, but whether the lion was hit we could not tell. He only went about one hundred yards away, and then began roaring in a manner that made us most uncomfortable. It was not long before he was joined by his mate, and the two kept up the most frightful roars I had ever heard. . . . It was no wonder then that we did not enjoy crawling out of our bomba in order to reset the cameras and flashlight.

Beyond a doubt, Mr. Dugmore, in the preparation of this volume, has rendered a very considerable service to natural history. As we have said, many of the photographs are exceedingly lifelike, and, what perhaps is still more im-

portant, they frequently show, as accurately and as completely as a photograph may, the natural habitat of the animal pictured, and its appearance in such surroundings. A still greater value of the book, however, is its effectiveness in calling attention to the really remarkable results which may be obtained by this new and altogether laudable manner of gratifying the love of the chase. It may fairly be doubted whether these results warrant the risks which Mr. Dugmore took in photographing such exceedingly dangerous animals as the lion and the rhinoceros—risks obviously far greater than are taken by the hunter whose only purpose is to kill, and who, as a matter of fact, usually brings down his animal at a comparatively safe distance. But there are many animals which may be photographed with little or no risk of attack, and yet not without the exercise of even more skill, resourcefulness, and determination than are involved in the pursuit of them with the rifle. For, as Mr. Dugmore very truly says: "The efficiency of the modern rifle greatly reduces the chance of failure, and consequently places the balance of chance too much in the sportsman's hands, while the difficulties of photography are lessened almost yearly by the invention of better and more simple devices, with the result that pictures which hitherto were practically unobtainable are to-day becoming common. It will be but a few years before we shall see clubs and societies formed for the advancement of natural history photography."

The last two chapters tell how to arrange a trip to British East Africa, and its cost and equipment; and the photographic outfit needed. The volume is of quarto size and well printed, but apparently is not very durably bound.

Drama and Music.

Arrangements have been completed for the reappearance of Ellen Terry upon the American stage next season, but not—unfortunately—in regular dramatic performances. She is to appear as an entertainer, as Mrs. Siddons, Fanny Kemble, and other famous players did in their time. Her proposal is to give a series of discourses with illustrative acting in Elizabethan costume, on "The Women of Shakespeare," "The Letters of Shakespeare," and "The Children of Shakespeare."

G. P. Huntley, the English comedian who recently played Eccles in "Caste," and Hattie Williams are to play together next season in an English version of "Le Bois sacré," by the authors of "Love Watches" and "Inconstant George." It deals with a woman's demand for the Legion of Honor ribbon.

Sarah Bernhardt continues to defy time and space. Next winter she is to pay another farewell visit to America, and the usual assurances are given that this one, positively, will be her last. According to

present arrangements she is to begin her next tour in this country in Chicago, on the 31st of October, and will reach New York one month later, remaining for four weeks. She brings with her an extensive repertory of old and new plays, including "L'Aiglon," "Jeanne d'Arc," "Les Bouffons," "Phèdre," "Monna Vanna," "Hamlet," "Resurrection," "Les Romanesques," etc. During her closing week she will be seen in "La Princesse Lointaine" of Rosstand and an act of "Faust." In this she may possibly have the assistance of the eminent actor, Le Bargy.

Hermann Vezin, the well-known actor, died in London on Sunday, aged eighty-one years. He was born in Philadelphia, and was graduated from the University of Pennsylvania. Going to Europe, he there resolved to become an actor, and made rapid success, until, in 1852, Charles Kean engaged him for the part of Pembroke in his famous revival of "King John," at the Princess Theatre in London. He then made a circuit of the English provinces for several years, until he returned to London in 1859, and played "Macbeth" in the Surrey Theatre. Thereafter he appeared with much success as Hamlet, King John, Othello, Shylock, Louis XVI, Sir Giles Overreach, and in "Donna Diana," by Westland Marston; in "The Man o' Airlie," and in "Dan'l Druce," by W. S. Gilbert. In 1868, at the Grand Theatre, Islington, he gave a single performance of "Cenci," Shelley's tragedy, to which the censor had refused a license. One of his famous later rôles was that of Dr. Primrose in "Olivia." He took Henry Irving's place as Macbeth, when the latter broke down, and achieved much success. At eighty years he played as Rowley in Sir Herbert Tree's revival of "The School for Scandal."

W. J. Galloway's "Musical England," which we reviewed in the *Nation* of May 19 from a copy of the London edition, is now published in this country by John Lane Co.

Percy Goetschius does not share the belief that a pupil must study harmony before he can intelligently take up counterpoint. His "Exercises in Elementary Counterpoint" (G. Schirmer) represent in his mind a course in harmony quite as much as in counterpoint, his conviction being that these two courses cannot be separated. While this point is debatable, an attentive student of this volume cannot fail to get a deep insight into the mysteries of harmony (chords and their uses), as well as of counterpoint, or the art of interweaving two or more melodies.

Louis C. Elson's "Pocket Music Dictionary" (Oliver Ditson Co.) is a little book containing in 180 pages, in a condensed form, the information imparted at greater length in the 306 pages of his "Music Dictionary." If singers and players, professional as well as amateur, carried a copy of it in their pocket (it takes up very little space), there would be fewer errors in the interpretation of masterpieces. An appendix of eighteen pages gives the most noted names in music, with places and dates of birth and death—above 500 in all.

"Why do pianos get out of tune? Should they be closed at night? How can the keys be kept white, the varnish clear?" These and many other questions that occur to

owners of instruments are answered in "The Construction, Tuning, and Care of the Pianoforte," by Edward Quincy Norton (Oliver Ditson Co.). Thirteen different reasons are given why strings break, and every other problem that presents itself to the maker, tuner, and player of a piano is treated with the same thoroughness—questions of action, of felt, of temperament, etc., with a page on injuries done by mice.

"Forty-four French Folksongs and Variants from Canada, Normandy, and Brittany" is the title of a collection just issued by G. Schirmer. The songs were gathered and harmonized by Julien Tiersot, and the text accompanying the music is in both French and English. Some of these songs have great rhythmic and melodic charm, and the harmonies added by Mr. Tiersot do not do violence to their spirit. He was pleased to find that, whereas in France such songs are chiefly in vogue among the lower classes, in "New France," particularly in the Province of Quebec, they are far from being despised by the educated classes. It is interesting to note how some of the old songs are colored by the new environment.

Art.

PARIS MUSEUM NOTES.

PARIS, June 3.

In the hall of Greek sculpture of the Louvre Museum, an important addition has been made to the series of archaic "Apollons," as they were once called, or "Kouroi," according to the later, non-committal designation. It is a statue found in the island of Paros in 1902, described the same year by O. Rubensohn (*Athen. Mittheil.*, XXVII, pl. xi), and forming No. 122 in the late work of W. Deonna; "Les Appollons archaïques" (Geneva, 1909). It helps to complete the series begun at the Louvre by the two torsos (Leonna, Nos. 1-2) excavated at Actium by the French consul, who found the Winged Victory of Samothrace, and continued by three fragments in marble of Pentelicus (Leonna, No. 23), and by a head in Parian marble (No. 24). The new piece is a complete figure, head and all, and well enough preserved to furnish the necessary standard of comparison. Three fragments of a larger statue, found at the same place, add to the completeness of the series, which precedes the Medic wars and begins in the second quarter of the sixth century, B. C. The first example recalls the "Apollo" of Thera, the new one that from Mount Ptous in Boeotia, now in the Athens Museum (Deonna, page 157, fig. 32-33).

Farnell ("Cults of the Greek States," Vol. IV, pages 330-1) places these examples of early Greek sculpture, with their multiple relations in archæology, art, religion, and social history:

The "Apollons" of Tenea, Thera, Orchomenos, etc., have no sure title, for some of these may have been representations of the worshipper who dedicates himself, or

of the athlete, or sepulchral monuments of the deceased. . . . It would be too dogmatic and hazardous to say that no Greek divinity had been represented unclothed before 600 B. C. When nudity became the prevalent fashion at the Olympian games, it was natural that the change should affect artistic conventions. That Apollo should have been the first prominent example of the new fashion is an interesting fact, about the explanation of which we may doubt. It may be found in the Dorian worship, in which Apollo was specially associated with the athletic and military epheboi, and therefore himself imagined as essentially a divine ephebos. It may also be that his relation with Zeus which became more explicit in the later period of religious thought, and in which he was essentially regarded as the son of God, assisted the development of the youthful ideal. But it is as a youth in early maturity, not as a boy, that the archaic, and usually also the later, art conceived him.

A transfer from the Auxerre Museum to the Louvre adds a not unimportant example of another period in art history. It is a statuette in limestone, 75 centimetres high, representing a draped woman, and is an undoubted specimen of the sculpture of the "Dædalids," who, from Crete, became the teachers of the Peloponnesians. It goes back to the seventh century B. C., and takes its place in the series of archaic feminine figures of the "xoanon" form. It is related to examples in the Museums of Candia and Athens, and to a find of the English school of Athens at Sparta in the temple of Artemis Orthia. It was described by Collignon in the *Revue Archéologique*, 1908, t. xi, pp. 153-170, pl. x.

A large Madonna in stone, of the years when the latest Gothic tradition was beginning to yield to Italian influence, has taken its place in the hall of Mediæval and Renaissance sculpture. It is of great artistic merit and of historic importance in the series. In the hall of modern sculpture, besides the maquettes of Carpeaux, now appear sketches of Barye, a series of models of David d'Angers, and the ivory statuette of Rachel by Barre. In the collections of the Mission Pelliot gathered from 1906 to 1909 in Chinese Turkestan, besides the manuscript treasure, there are paintings and sculpture showing the transmission of Greek art formulas and types to Indian Buddhism of the Middle Ages. These have a special hall at the Louvre.

The "Inventaire général des dessins du Musée du Louvre," by Jeon Guiffrey and Pierre Marcel (25 francs a volume, or by subscription), continues its good work of rendering this immense and priceless treasure of drawings available for purposes of study in art and history. The fourth volume—French school—comprises 610 illustrations of good quality for the 825 drawings described. The alphabetical order in this new volume happens to concentrate the interest, comprising as it does the work of Corot, Daubigny, David, and Delacroix, all of

which is abundantly represented in the Louvre collection. Of particular interest is a series of archæological sketches by David, showing his laborious documentation; and 38 leaves from Delacroix's Morocco sketchbook. Great space and a learned introduction are given to the drawings of Antoine Coyppel, which at his death came in their totality to the royal collection.

The Bibliothèque Nationale has received a legacy of importance for the history of the Restoration. It is the works of the engraver Depaulis, comprising notably a collection of portraits of celebrated contemporaries ordered by Louis XVIII. Alexander I obtained duplicates for the Russian Imperial Museum; but the French collection, which had remained in the engraver's family, will prove more accessible to ordinary students.

The rich decorative art collection of Piet-Lataudrie has now been distributed to different French museums, according to the directions of the testator. The Louvre receives 26 valuable pieces, which have been described by M. Migeon in *Les Arts*, August, 1909. They comprise a series from Persia, Egypt, Asia Minor, and Andalusia, from the twelfth to the sixteenth century. The remainder are of varied European origin from the Middle Ages and Renaissance. The portrait of the donor by Bastien-Lepage will be placed with the collection at the Louvre.

S. D.

"Portrait Miniatures" is the subject of the special spring number of the *Studio*. The text is by the very competent hand of Dr. George C. Williamson, and there are more than fifty plates of fair execution of which more than half are colored. These we think are the less successful. Naturally the treatment has to be selective. Dr. Williamson, for example, gives some attention to Austrian miniaturists, apparently because a book has recently been published on them. No American name appears, though Malbone and Fraser are certainly above the average level of the artists presented. In running through the illustrations one is struck by the general mediocrity displayed. Occasionally the art has allured a Holbein, a Samuel Cooper, and a Füger, but in the main, the Cosways represent its heights and the Plimers its bathetic average. They did things somewhat better, to be sure, in France, where a fair level of technical integrity was maintained. Still the very defects of miniature painting are of an endearing sort. Collectors of a modest kind will doubtless welcome this album of reproductions from rare and virtually inaccessible originals. We regret the absence of Bronzino, who would have added one more great artist to the few here represented.

"English Leadwork, Its Art and History," by Lawrence Weaver, F. S. A., is a large and richly illustrated quarto imported by the Scribners and sold at ten dollars net. The American student of decoration will be astonished at the antiquity and number

of fine remains. Not to mention lead coffins, there are elaborately sculptured baptismal fountains of Romanesque period extant in several examples. As we approach the late Gothic period and the classical revival, water pipe heads and cisterns become prominent. Occasionally we find an entire bay window sheathed with the ductile metal. At all times spires and pinnacles have been covered with lead. Often the setting of the plates and the soldering is managed with great vivacity. Aberdeen spires, for instance, are almost without exception picturesquely herringboned. As we reach the century just past, lead work shares the general decline of all handicraft. Many garden statues, mostly copies of classic originals, date from the eighteenth century on. We find this the least interesting and idiomatic employment of the material. The ferment of the arts and crafts movement in England has done something to restore lead to architectural honor. Gutters, water leads, garden tanks—a whole class of decorative exterior plumbing, which had been done flimsily in stamped copper, zinc, or even tinned sheet iron, is now often designed and cast in the more durable metal. Mr. Troup's, Mr. Bankart's, and J. Starkie Gardner's designs all merit praise for their strength, simplicity, and appropriateness to the material. In general exterior leadwork seems best when it is merely serviceable, as roof covering, coping, or water service. The author's warning against milled sheet lead should be noted. With lead used as material for isolated sculpture we have little sympathy. Here there seems to be an æsthetic confusion between the charming little pewter statuettes of the Continental sculptors and the robust requirements of garden statuary. Concrete or the softer stones for this purpose have every merit of lead and some additional virtues of their own. The appeal of this fully illustrated book to students of English decoration is strong, to practising architects perhaps even stronger.

Louis Auguste Hiolin, the sculptor, died recently at Silly-la-Poterie, aged sixty-three years. He pursued his artistic studies under Viollet-le-Duc, Aimé Perrey, and Jouffroy, and was a member of the Artistes Français, receiving four medals, the last in 1900. Among his works are the monument at Soissons in memory of the defenders of 1870, and the statue of Racine at Ferté-Milon.

Finance.

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES.

It is probable that Wall Street tradition will hereafter associate the recent spasm of Stock Exchange liquidation entirely with the collision between government and railways. There will, however, if experience is any guide, be three distinct lines of reasoning. We shall be told that the market would not have collapsed at all, but for Attorney-General Wickersham's injunction. We shall learn that the liquidation was inevitable, but that the Washington action hastened and aggravated it. Finally, we shall hear that economic causes were

paramount, and that the railway rate dispute was only a passing incident.

Some light on the judgment of the future may be gained by a rather remarkable parallel case. Observant and reminiscent financiers have generally agreed in the strong points of resemblance between the events of the past few months and what happened towards the end of 1895. The comparison is now an old one, yet a fresh parallel incident is constantly being added. The premature after-panic boom, the violent rise in prices of commodities and stocks, the general outburst of speculation on borrowed money, the turning of an export balance on foreign trade account into an "import excess," the exhausting drain of gold, the wholesale placing of railway loans in Europe to correct the foreign trade position—this was the list of coincidences to date, a fortnight ago. But when financial watchers traced out these rather remarkable parallels, and indulged in more or less vague conjecture as to what would be the outcome on the present occasion, they were not aware that one of the most striking in all the series of parallels was close at hand. What happened next was no more foreseen in 1895 than in 1910, and, on both occasions, it had precisely the same effect on the Stock Exchange.

It was in September, 1895, that the highly unfavorable nature of the economic situation began to be discerned. Prices sold slowly off in the Stock Exchange; but the surplus bank reserve was large, money was very easy, and it was hoped that liquidation in commodities would solve the difficulties. Still, the uncertainty in the Stock Exchange continued, and by December there was anxious discussion, in conservative banking circles, as to whether true economic equilibrium could be restored except through much more radical liquidation. It was then, quite unexpectedly, that President Cleveland sent to Congress on Monday, December 17, his famous Venezuela message.

The wisdom of that message, especially as regards the veiled defiance of Great Britain, was a matter of warm discussion, then and afterward. It was, in fact, a much more disquieting political incident, so far as its ultimate possibilities were concerned, than the railway rate injunction, and the clamor of hysterical excitement which arose throughout the country was such as to make the recent "railway interviews" a trifling matter by comparison. The stock market hesitated; then liquidation on an extreme scale began. Before the week was over, Atchison stock had fallen 7 points, Burlington and Quincy 15, St. Paul 15½, Rock Island 16½, Lake Shore 14, New York Central 10. Even in the Wall Street call money market, rates advanced to 100 per cent. The liquidation in stocks was drastic and complete.

The reader can trace analogies for himself. During the break in stocks in the last fortnight of 1895, it was commonly alleged in Wall Street, first, that no way out of the trouble with England was in sight; secondly, that the Administration had hopelessly injured the financial situation. Yet a very few weeks sufficed to prove that there was a solution to the trouble; England agreed to arbitration of the Venezuela claims, much as the railways last week agreed to leave the rate dispute to the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Stock Exchange, even before the month was over, had recovered half its losses, and the purchases were largely by strong interests, home and foreign.

But the developments which presently ensued in the country's economic position were much more remarkable. During 1895, so deadlocked was the domestic market for capital that an enormously expansive foreign syndicate had to be employed to finance an urgently-needed loan to the United States Government. In January—less than a month after the "Venezuela panic"—another \$100,000,000 loan was offered for home subscription by the general public; it elicited total bids of \$568,000,000, was taken at a great advance over the price of the "syndicate loan" of 1895, and plainly showed that the market for capital was in a normal condition. Bulwarked thus by a liquidated speculation and by returning soundness in the economic situation, the market sustained with remarkable vitality the shock of Bryan's Presidential canvass. Liquidation was not by any means ended with "Venezuela week"; the markets had some bad quarter-hours in 1896; but three months before election day, prices were rising rapidly in the Stock Exchange; exports of merchandise far exceeded imports; gold poured in from Europe, and the way was prepared for the coming industrial revival.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbe, C. The Mechanics of the Earth's Atmosphere. A collection of translations. Washington: Smithsonian Institution.
- Allen, J. Above Life's Turmoil. Putnam. \$1.
- Ambler, C. H. Sectionalism in Virginia from 1776 to 1861. Univ. of Chicago Press. \$1.50 net.
- Avery, E. McK. History of the United States and Its People. Vol. VII. Cleveland: Burrows Bros.
- Bennett, A. Buried Alive. Brentano's.
- Best, R. H., Davies, W. J., Perks, C. Brass-workers of Berlin and of Birmingham. Fifth edition. London: P. S. King & Son.
- Bourne, G. The Ascending Effort. Dutton. \$1.50.
- Bowditch, C. P. Numeration, Calendar Systems, and Astronomical Knowledge of the Mayas. Cambridge Univ. Press.
- Browne, E. A. Romanesque Architecture. Macmillan. \$1.75 net.
- Buchanan, U. Ideals and Conduct. Cochran Pub. Co.
- Burhans, V. The Cave-Woman: a Novel of To-day. Holt.
- Calkins, M. W. A First Book in Psychology. Macmillan. \$1.90 net.



Henry Holt & Company 34 W. 33 St.

HAVE JUST ISSUED:

Chas. D. Hazen's EUROPE SINCE 1815

With 14 Colored Maps. 8vo., \$3.00 net.

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